

Goldsmith, Oliver,

The works of Oliver Goldsmith

Bd.: V

1886

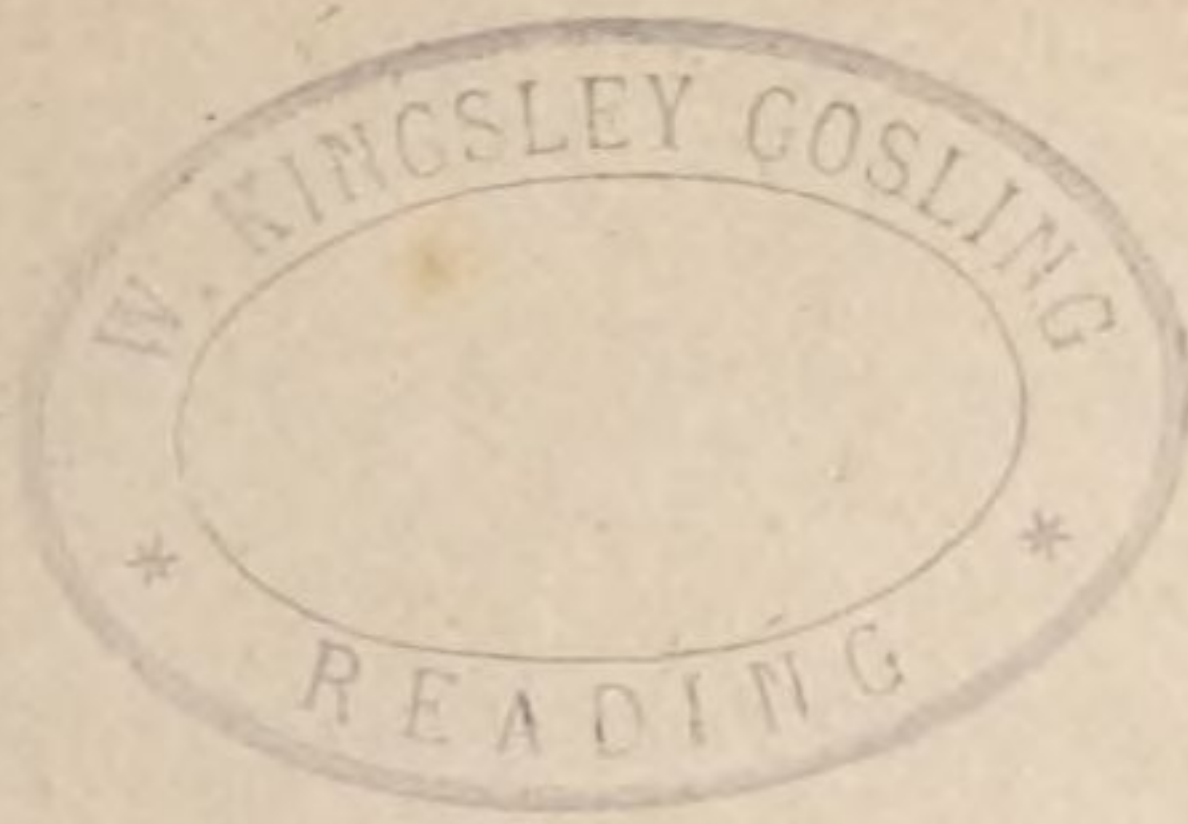
P.o.angl. 142 ln-5

urn:nbn:de:bvb:12-bsb11664275-6

P.O. angl.

goldsmith

142 ln / 5



BOHN'S STANDARD LIBRARY.

THE WORKS OF OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

VOL. V.

THE WORKS
OF
OLIVER GOLDSMITH

A NEW EDITION, CONTAINING PIECES HITHERTO
UNCOLLECTED, AND A LIFE OF THE AUTHOR.

WITH NOTES FROM VARIOUS SOURCES BY

J. W. M. GIBBS.

IN FIVE VOLUMES.

VOL. V.

PREFACES AND INTRODUCTIONS: ANIMATED NATURE
(EXTRACTS): NOBLEMAN'S LETTERS: GOODY
TWO-SHOES: INDEX.

LONDON: GEORGE BELL AND SONS, YORK STREET,
COVENT GARDEN.

1886.



CHISWICK PRESS :—C. WHITTINGHAM AND CO., TOOKS COURT,
CHANCERY LANE.

PREFACE.

THIS edition of Goldsmith's works has exceeded its originally appointed measure by a whole volume: but it is to be hoped that nothing has been included which may not fitly find a place in what aspires to be a full and accurate edition of his works.

To attempt an absolutely complete edition of his writings, comprising everything that proceeded from his pen at the bidding of booksellers and the promptings of daily requirements, would be obviously neither a desirable nor a practicable undertaking: and in this volume, in the shape of prefaces and extracts, will probably be found all that retains any interest of these laudable but now inadequate and misleading compilations. If there is an error, it is perhaps one of excess, since the extracts are somewhat larger than former editions have given. Several of the Prefaces here given are now included in Goldsmith's works for the first time; and with regard to one, viz., that of the 'Seven Years' War,' some new information as to the origin and date of the work will be found.

The inclusion of the old tale of 'Goody Two-Shoes' is in deference to the popular supposition that it was written by him. There are good grounds, it will be seen, for supposing that the Introduction and some passages, if no more, are by Goldsmith. A copious index to Goldsmith's works, hitherto a desideratum, completes the work.

CONTENTS.

	PAGE
PREFACES AND INTRODUCTIONS:—	
To the ‘Memoirs of a Protestant’	3
To the [‘History of the Seven Years’ War’]	7
To ‘A Poetical Dictionary’	60
To ‘Plutarch’s Lives’	65
To the ‘Martial Review’	66
To Brookes’s ‘Natural History’	68
Of Quadrupeds in general	76
Of Birds in general	94
The History of Fishes	102
The History of Insects	111
Of Botany in general	119
To ‘A General History of the World’	129
To ‘A Survey of Experimental Philosophy’	143
To ‘A Collection of Poems for Young Ladies’	150
To ‘The Beauties of English Poesy’	153
Criticisms to the same	154
To ‘The Roman History’	162
To ‘The Roman History Abridged for Schools’	165
To ‘The History of England’	166
To ‘The Grecian History’	170
 APPENDIX TO THE PREFACES:—	
I. Judge Day’s Reminiscences of Goldsmith	173
II. Goldsmith’s History of England, &c.	176
 THE EARTH AND ANIMATED NATURE (Extracts)	 181
 A HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN A SERIES OF LETTERS FROM A NOBLEMAN TO HIS SON (Selected Letters)	 249
 THE HISTORY OF LITTLE GOODY TWO-SHOES	 351
 APPENDIX TO THE VOLUME:—	
I. Goody Two-Shoes, &c., and the Newberys	405
II. A Note of Omissions	408
 INDEX	 417

PREFACES AND INTRODUCTIONS.

[Some of the most pleasant of Goldsmith's writing is to be found in his Prefaces and Introductions. Dr. Johnson was likewise very apt in this kind of work, and of his Prefaces it has been said, that though he did not always know what the book prefaced would contain, he always knew what it should contain, and wrote his preface accordingly. Precisely the same, it seems to us, might be said of Goldsmith and his Prefaces. Bishop Percy recognized the value of the Prefaces, and included seven of them in his 1801 edition of our author's works, viz., the Prefaces to Brookes's 'Natural History,' the 'History of the World,' the 'Roman History,' the 'History of England,' the 'History of the Earth and Animated Nature,' the 'Beauties of English Poesy,' and the 'Collection of Poems for Young Ladies.' The Preface to Brookes's 'Natural History' appeared there without the five Introductions to the chief departments of the science (which duly appear in the present edition); but the omission was against Percy's wishes. Indeed, he quarrelled with his working editor, Samuel Rose, and his publishers, chiefly over the omission of the Brookes Introductions, and refused in consequence of the omission to formally revise or be responsible for the entire edition (see the Percy correspondence, in vol. vi., p. 583, of Nichols' 'Literary Illustrations,' which is extracted from at pp. 56, 57). Hence, no doubt, some of the manifest faults of that edition of Goldsmith, which, otherwise, coming from the author's personal friend and literary executor, should have been the most valuable of our editions. Dr. Johnson was also charmed with the Brookes Introductions. It must have been these which elicited from him the memorable prediction with regard to the after-coming and larger work in the same field—the 'Animated Nature':—"He [Goldsmith] is now writing a Natural History, and will make it as interesting as a Persian tale" (Boswell's 'Johnson,' Standard Library edition, 1884, vol. ii., p. 223). The excellence of the Brookes Introductions, too, led, as Percy expressly tells us, to Goldsmith's important engagement to produce that same 'History of the Earth and Animated Nature'—a work that engrossed a large portion of the last years of his life, and brought him no less than eight hundred pounds.

There can hardly be a doubt of the genuineness of the seven Prefaces first collected by Percy. Prior added several to those given in the Percy edition. The remainder given in the present edition have been collected since Prior wrote. Only two of the additions seem at all doubtful. The Introduction to the sixth volume of Brookes's 'Natural History' (Botany) we have remarked upon at pp. 119, 128. Its genuineness may be doubted, but we think the preponderance of the evidence favours the supposition that Goldsmith wrote it at least in its first form. Concerning the 'Experimental Philosophy' Introduction, which has only once before been reprinted, see pp. 143 and 150.

The prefaces to the 'History of England in a Series of Letters from a Nobleman to his Son,' and the 'History of the Earth and Animated Nature' are omitted from the following collection, because we have thought it best to give them with the Extracts from those two works which we add to the present volume.—ED.]



PREFACES AND INTRODUCTIONS.

PREFACE

TO

A TRANSLATION OF 'THE MEMOIRS OF A PROTESTANT.'¹

THE praise by which a translator attempts to advance the reputation of his original is usually considered as an indirect claim to applause on his own account. Though he may not stand in the full lustre of his own panegyric, yet, such are his connections with his author, that he receives

¹ The full title of this work was:—'The Memoirs of a Protestant, condemned to the Gallies of France for his Religion. Written by himself. Comprehending an account of the various distresses he suffered in slavery, and his constancy in supporting almost every cruelty that bigoted zeal could inflict, or human nature sustain; also a description of the galleys, and the service in which they are employed. The whole interspersed with anecdotes relative to the general history of the times for a period of thirteen years, during which the author continued in slavery, till he was at last set free at the intercession of the Court of Great Britain. In two volumes. Translated from the original, just published at the Hague, by James Willington.' It is a translation from the French, and was published in 1758. The translation as well as the Preface is considered to be by Goldsmith. The name "James Willington," on the title-page, is said to have been borrowed by Goldsmith from a friend and former fellow student at Dublin, who was then, it seems, doing odd literary work with Goldsmith in London (see next page and also Prior's 'Life of Goldsmith,' vol. i., p. 251). R. Griffiths, of the *Monthly Review*, for whom Goldsmith was then working, published the book, and it is variously stated (by Aiken and Reed) that Griffiths gave Goldsmith twenty guineas, and that Dilly, the publisher, gave Griffiths that sum for the work. The fugitive Protestant is now known to have been Jean Marteilhe, of Bergerac, whose original narrative is shown to be perfectly authentic. See the note at the end of this Preface.—ED.

it by reflection, and tacitly compliments himself at least for judgment in his choice. Assurances on his part, however, seldom influence the approbation of the public, but frequently incur its contempt; for if he be so unfortunate as to fail in his promises, falsehood is added to swell the number of his own imperfections.

Sensible of this truth, it is not expected to enhance the excellencies or palliate the faults of the succeeding Memoir. The public will scarce be influenced in their judgment by an obscure prefacer; and perhaps the work might rather suffer by his misplaced admiration. To confess a truth, he hardly knows how to introduce it to the public attention, and even to procure it a reading, among the multiplicity of modern publications.

Perhaps what he thinks its excellencies, may be considered as defects: what he hopes may give it popularity, will contribute to assign it to neglect. Thus, for instance, it cannot be recommended as a grateful entertainment to the numerous readers of reigning romance, as it is strictly true. No events are here to astonish; no unexpected incidents to surprise; no such high-finished pictures as captivate the imagination and have made fiction fashionable. Our reader must be content with the simple exhibition of truth, and consequently of nature; he must be satisfied to see vice triumphant and virtue in distress; to see men punished or rewarded, not as his wishes, but as Providence has thought proper to direct; for all here wears the face of sincerity.

The author, indeed, who is still alive, and known to numbers, not only in Holland, but London, has from prudential motives, thought proper to suppress his name; and the same reasons that have induced him to conceal it, equally influence the translator.¹

¹ This, of course, is a confession that "James Willington" is a borrowed or fictitious name. In 1864, and later, French and English editions of the 'Memoirs' were published. In the Paris edition of 1864, M. Paumier expressed the opinion that probably Goldsmith saw and knew Jean Marteilhe in Holland. Prior tells us that Griffiths, reviewing the translation of 1758 in the *Monthly Review*, speaks of "the ingenious translator, who really deserves this name on account of the spirit of the performance, though we have little to say in praise of its accuracy," terms which, as Prior remarks, are similar to those used in the *Monthly*

His keeping himself concealed may probably, to some, appear suspicious ; yet let it be considered, that were this the work of fiction, nothing could have been easier than to invent fictitious names also ; a practice almost universally adopted by those who are indebted to invention alone for their materials : but such the author chose to imitate in nothing ; and his conduct in the present case is a proof of the authenticity of his performance.

As there are little hopes of pleasing those who delight in improbabilities, so there is another class of readers whom it is as little expected to satisfy. Those who upon hearing that the author suffered persecution with constancy, may expect also to find him talk upon all occasions like our enthusiasts ; who attach formal phrase and disgusting ejaculation to their ideas of religion ; and imagine that every part of history which serves to amuse, is certainly an infringement on piety. Such he cannot expect to have for his admirers ; so that, between the lovers of an idle tale and the partizans of cant and formality, the translator almost trembles for his author's reception.

As he has expressed his fears, permit him to express his hopes also : and if there be any reader who can for a moment lay aside romance for history ; who can prefer a picture taken from nature to the more glaring colourings of fancy : if there be any who can be pleased with a narrative inspired by truth, and perhaps executed with modesty ; and if we cannot deserve the approbation of such readers, we shall contentedly acquiesce in their censure.

The present Memoir commences where the historians of those times discontinue their accounts. It carries on the relation of a national persecution, almost too shocking for belief, though too well attested not to be a lasting monument of disgrace to humanity.¹

Louis XIV. of France, induced by some pretended con-

Review's obituary article upon Goldsmith. It may be further noted that the original French edition of these 'Memoirs' was reviewed in the 'Foreign' article of the *Monthly Review* of May, 1757 (p. 449). The next article being known to be by Goldsmith, perhaps this review was also his, and hence, it may be, came the idea of the translation which our author (or Willington) undertook, and Griffiths agreed to publish.—ED.

¹ The text of the book shows that Marteilhe's "sufferings" occurred in the years between 1700 and 1713.—ED.

versions, and incited by those who took care of the Royal conscience, revoked the Edict of Nantes.¹ This charter was settled by Henry IV., and was the great bulwark of Protestant security against ecclesiastical persecution. The revocation of this edict gave Popery a full power to tyrannize; and its un pitying tribunals were erected over all the kingdom. The miseries of that period are pathetically described, even by their own historians. Protestants were dragged from their families; exposed to all the insults of unguided zeal; emaciated in dungeons; denied the consolation of friendship; brought to the rack; turning their eyes to take a last farewell of their children, but only meeting an odious priest; the executioner, bathed in the blood of their expiring friends, chiding their delay; their carcasses blackening in the sun, or exposed to rot on dunghills!

Such was a part of the accumulated miseries of the times; while Louis, surnamed the Great, was feasting at Versailles, fed with the incense of flattery, or sunk in the lewd embraces of a prostitute! Can an Englishman hear this, and not burn with indignation against those foes to religion, to liberty, and his country? And should not every attempt to promote this generous indignation meet at least indulgence, though it should not deserve applause? Could the present performance teach one individual to value his religion, by contrasting it with the furious spirit of Popery; could it contribute to make him enamoured with liberty, by showing their unhappy situation whose possessions are held by so precarious a tenure as tyrannical caprice; could it promote his zeal in the cause of humanity, or give him a wish to imitate the virtues of the sufferer, or redress the injuries of oppression; then, indeed, the author will not have wrote in vain. A convert of this kind is worth a thousand admirers; and to attain these ends was probably his design; and not to gratify idle curiosity, or erect himself into the minute hero of his own Memoir.²

¹ The date of the revocation was Oct. 22, 1685.—ED.

² As we have said, the narrative of Jean Marteilhe is now known to be perfectly authentic. M. Paumier, prefacing the French edition of 1864, says the original work was revised by pastor Daniel de Superville, one of those who received the fugitive. He adds that an edition later

PREFACE AND INTRODUCTION

TO

THE HISTORY OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR.¹

[The Preface and Introduction here given were printed by Prior from the MS. The latter, which Isaac Reed testifies is in Goldsmith's hand, was lent to Prior by Heber. It came to Heber, it seems, from Reed's sale; was given to Reed by Steevens; who had it from "Hamilton the printer" (he of the *Critical Review*). Until now this work was supposed to have been written in 1761, two years before the close of the Seven Years' War. Prior could not find it in print, and could not be sure that it ever was printed; and so matters stood until now. We have now found that the chapters of the 'Introduction' here reproduced appeared substantially in three numbers of the *Literary Magazine*, December, 1757, and January and February, 1758, with the title 'The History of Our Own Times.' Several of the chapters are nearly identical in both versions, but portions of that of the *Literary Magazine* are cut out, and much there is altered, while the present version shows a great deal added. The principal additions seem to be the Preface, the matter on England and Prussia, and part of that on Germany. The matter on France is a good deal altered; that on Spain and Holland not so much altered. What remains to be discovered is the History for which these *Literary Magazine* essays were amplified and recast, and whether or not the recast was printed with that history.—Ed.]

In whatever light we regard the present war which has disturbed all Europe, we shall find it the most important of any recorded in modern history. Whether we consider the power of the nations at variance, the number of the forces employed, or the skill of the generals conducting, we

than that of 1757, which Goldsmith (or Willington) translated, gave a key to the names denoted only by initials in the original. The *Quarterly Review* of July, 1866 (p. 63), noticing the 'Memoirs' and their hero, quotes M. Coquerel showing that Marteilhe died at Cuylenberg in 1777, aged 93; and, further, that "It is known that he had a daughter, who was married at Amsterdam to an English naval officer of distinction, Vice-Admiral Douglas."—Ed.

¹ The heading to the article here is Prior's. The fact that these chapters were written before the close of the "Seven Years' War" suggests that they must have been published, if at all in this form, with a History not including "Seven Years' War" in its title. Of course the war of 1756-1763 was not a "seven years' war" until it was finished.—Ed.

shall equally find matter for improvement and admiration. We shall see small kingdoms forced by the prudence of one man into an astonishing degree of power, and extensive countries scarcely able to support their own rights or repel the invader.

But whatever these contentions may be thought of by others, they will never be regarded by Britons but as instances of her power, her bravery, and her successes. In this war England will appear in greater splendour than in any period of the most boasted antiquity; it will be seen to poize the fates of Europe, and bring its most potent and most ambitious states into the lowest degree of humiliation. This is a glory which should excite every lover of his country to celebrate as well as share in.

The desolation of war, the insolent severity of victors, and the servitude of those who happen to be overcome, have been often the topics of declamatory complaint, and employed the reasoner as well as the rhetorician: but still I should doubt whether even wars have not their benefits; whether they do not serve, as motion to waters, to depurate states of all, or a great number of vices, contracted by long habits of peace. If we attentively examine the records of history, we shall ever find that long indolence in any country was only productive of mischief; and that those very arts which were brought to perfection in peace, often served to introduce new vices with new luxury. The Roman state stood firm until Italy had no longer any enemies to fear: contented with enjoying the fruits of victory, they no more desired to obtain it; their wars were carried on by mercenary soldiers, their armies were levied in distant provinces, and those very provinces at length became their masters.¹

But to what purpose is it to cite ancient history, when we have so recent and so near an instance in the Dutch? That people, once brave, enthusiasts in the cause of freedom, and able to make their state formidable to their neighbours, are, by a long continuance of peace, divided into faction, set upon private interest, and neither able nor willing to usurp its rights or revenge oppression. This may serve as

¹ See a similar argument in the essay on 'Public Rejoicings for Victory' in our vol. iv.—ED.

a memorable instance of what may be the result of a total inattention to war, and an utter extirpation of martial ardour. Insulted by the French, threatened by the English, and almost universally despised by the rest of Europe—how unlike the brave peasants their ancestors, who spread terror into either India, and always declared themselves the allies of those who drew the sword in defence of freedom !¹

The friendship between the English and the Dutch was at first conceived to be inseparable; they were termed, in the style of politicians, faithful friends, natural allies, Protestant confederates, and by many other names of national endearment. Both had the same interest as opposed to France, and some resemblance of religion as opposed to Popery; yet these were but slight ties with a nation whose only views were commerce. A rivalry in that will serve to destroy with them every connection. No merely mercantile man or mercantile nation has any friendship but for money; and an alliance between them will last no longer than their common safety or common profit is endangered; no longer than they have an enemy ready to deprive them of more than they can be able to steal from each other.

A long continuance of property in the same channel is also very prejudicial to a nation: in such a state, emulation is in some measure destroyed, fortune seems to stand still with those who are already in possession of it, they who are rich have no need of an exertion of their abilities in order to preserve their wealth, and the poor must rest in hopeless indigence; but war gives a circulation to the wealth of a nation, the poor have many opportunities of bettering their fortune, and the rich must labour in order to support the necessary expenses required in defraying it. Thus all are in action; and emulative industry is the parent of every national virtue.

¹ Compare lines 313, &c., of 'The Traveller'—

“Heavens! how unlike their Belgic sires of old!
Rough, poor, content, ungovernably bold.”

Jottings of the poem were in existence at this time, though the completed work did not appear till 1764. See 'Life,' p. 24.—ED.

A long continuance of peace in England was never productive of advantageous consequences; upon such occasions, we have ever seen her divided into factions, her senates becoming venal, and her ministers even avowing corruption. But when a foreign enemy appears, private animosities cease, factions are forgotten, and party rage is united against the common foe. I am not an advocate for war; but it were happy if mankind did not require such a scourge to keep them within those bounds which they ought to observe, with respect to their country and themselves. It is not likely, however, the English should relax into the abject state of debility of a neighbouring nation; they will ever have cause of distrust while France continues to cherish views of ambition—a nation that seems the enemy of Britain by nature. Different in religion, government, and disposition, it is almost impossible they can ever be thoroughly reconciled; and perhaps this rivalry will continue to preserve them both in circumstances of vigour and power, longer than any other nations recorded in history; since, from the situation of each country, it does not seem easy to conceive how the one will ever be able entirely to oppress the other.

The system of politics at present pursued by the English may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. At this time the Protestant religion was established, which then allied us to those countries who embraced the Reformation, and made all the Popish powers our enemies. A habit of politics once contracted is seldom discontinued; thus, those connections which were at first made from religious motives, were still observed when religion was out of the question. The English began in the same reign to extend their trade, by which it became necessary to watch the commercial progress of their neighbours, and to hinder their own traffic from being impaired by too great an increase of that of their rivals. They then likewise settled colonies in America, which was become the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conquest, or plantation, would pour the same quantity of riches into the mother country. This produced a large

extent of very distant dominions, the advantage or incumbrance of which was not at this time foreseen. Every state, however, concluded itself more powerful as its dominions were enlarged.

The discoveries of new regions, which were then every day made, the advantages of remote traffic, and, consequently, the desire of long voyages, produced in a few years a great multiplication of shipping. The sea came to be considered as the element of wealth; and by degrees a new kind of sovereignty arose, called naval dominion. As the chief trade of the world so the chief maritime power was at first in the hands of the Spaniards and Portuguese, who, by a compact to which the consent of other princes was not asked, had divided the newly discovered countries between them; but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the King of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the ships of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, till the Armada which he had raised at a vast expense for the conquest of England was destroyed; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards,

At this time the Dutch, oppressed by the Spaniards and fearing yet greater evils than they felt, resolved no longer to endure the insolence of their masters, and after a struggle, in which they were assisted by the money and forces of England, erected an independent and at that time powerful commonwealth. When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their system of government, and some remission from the war gave them leisure to form schemes of future prosperity, they easily perceived that, as their territories were narrow and their numbers few, they could preserve themselves only by wealth, and that this wealth was to be acquired only by commerce. From this necessity so justly estimated, arose a plan of commerce (which was for many years prosecuted with industry and success), perhaps never seen in the world before. By this, the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable marshes erected themselves into high and mighty states; who put the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of

this state, England saw a new ally, but at the same time a new rival.

At this time, which seems to be the period destined for the change of the face of Europe, France began to rise into power; and instead of dreading the insults and invasions of England (as was formerly the case), she was not only able to maintain her own territories, but prepared on all occasions to invade others—dead to every sense of liberty herself, yet disposed to deprive all others who possessed it.

Such was the state of England and its neighbours, when Elizabeth left the crown to James of Scotland. The union of the two kingdoms happened at a very critical juncture. Had England and Scotland continued separate kingdoms when France was established in the full possession of her newly acquired power, the Scots, upon every instigation of the French court, would have raised an army with the money of France, and harassed England with an invasion, in which they would have thought themselves successful, whatever numbers they might have left behind them. To a people warlike and indigent, an incursion into a rich country is never hurtful. The pay of France, and the plunder of the northern counties, would always have tempted them to hazard their lives; and England would have been subject to continual alarms, from ambition on one side and avarice on the other.

This trouble, however, we escaped, by the accession of King James; but it is uncertain whether his natural disposition did not injure us more than this accidental good-fortune benefited us. He was a man of some speculative knowledge, but no practical wisdom: he was able to discern the true interest of himself, his kingdom, and his posterity, but sacrificed it upon all occasions to his present pleasure or his present ease; so conscious of his own knowledge and abilities, that he would not suffer a minister to govern, and yet so very inattentive, or so timorous, that he was unable to govern himself. With such dispositions, James calmly saw the Dutch invade our commerce; the French grew every day stronger and stronger, and the Protestant interest, of which he boasted himself the head, was oppressed on every side. James, however, took care to be

flattered at home, and was neither angry nor ashamed at the figure he made, and at the jests thrown out against him in other countries. England, therefore, grew weaker, or, what amounts to the same thing, saw her neighbours grow stronger, without receiving proportionable additions to her own power. Not that the mischief was so great as is generally conceived or represented; for to the attentive it will appear, that the wealth of this nation was at that period considerably increased, though that of the crown was less. Our reputation for war was impaired; but commerce seems to have been carried on with great industry and vigour, and nothing was wanting but a generous spirit of resentment, or rather self-defence. The inclination to plant colonies in America still continued; and this being the only project in which men of adventure and enterprise could exert their qualities in a pacific reign, multitudes who were discontented with their condition in their native country—and such multitudes there will always be—sought relief, or at least change, in the regions of America, where they settled on the northern part of the continent, at a distance from the Spaniards—at that time almost the only nation that had power or will to obstruct us.

Such was the condition of this country at the accession of Charles I. During a reign so turbulent it was not to be expected that commerce could flourish; wherefore, while the English were, during these unhappy times, embroiled among themselves, the power of France and Holland was every day increasing. The Dutch had overcome the difficulties of their infant commonwealth, and, as they still retained their vigour and industry, every day increased in riches and power—the attendant of well regulated opulence. They extended their traffic, and had not yet admitted luxury; so that they had the means and the will to accumulate wealth, without any incitement to spend it. The French, who wanted nothing to make them powerful but a prudent regulation of their revenues and a proper use of their natural advantages, by the successive care of skilful ministers, became every day stronger and more conscious of their strength. They turned their thoughts to traffic and navigation, and seemed, like other nations, sensible of the advantages of an American colony.

All the fruitful and valuable parts of the western world were already either occupied or claimed, and nothing remained for France but what other navigators had thought unworthy of their notice: she was contented, therefore, to fix upon Canada, a desolate northern country, as yet claimed by no other power; for she was not yet arrived at that pitch of influence as to seize what the neighbouring powers had already appropriated.

When the parliament of England had at length prevailed over the King, the interest of the two commonwealths of England and Holland appeared to be opposite, and the new government declared war against the Dutch. In this contest was exerted the utmost power of the two nations, and the Dutch were finally defeated, yet not with such evidence of superiority as left us much reason to boast of our victory; they were obliged, however, to solicit peace, which was granted them on easy conditions, and Cromwell, who was now possessed of the supreme power, was left at leisure to pursue other designs. The European powers had not yet ceased to look with envy on the Spanish acquisitions in America, and therefore Cromwell thought that if he gained any part of those celebrated regions, he should exalt his own reputation and enrich the country. He therefore quarrelled with the Spaniards upon such pretences as were only the result of an inclination for war, and sent Penn and Venables into the western seas. They first landed in Hispaniola, whence they were driven off with no great reputation to themselves; and that they might not return without having done something, they afterwards invaded Jamaica, where they found less resistance, and obtained that island, which was afterwards consigned to us, being probably of little value to the Spaniards, but which to us is the source of great wealth, and a retreat for the discontented at home.

The endeavour to distress Spain was at this time an error in the politics of Cromwell. They had, for more than half a century, fallen from their pristine greatness, while France seemed as if rising upon their ruins. To distress them, therefore, was the only way to increase the power of France: but our own troubles gave us little time to look upon the continent, nor did we consider that, of two monarchs, neither of which could be long our friend, it was our

interest to have the weaker near us; or, that if a war should happen, Spain, however wealthy or strong in herself, was, by the dispersion of her territories, more obnoxious to the attacks of a naval power, and consequently, had more to fear, and less power to injure.

During this time, however, our colonies, which were less disturbed by our commotions than the mother country, naturally increased: it is probable that many who were unhappy at home took shelter in those remote regions, where, for the sake of inviting greater numbers, every one was permitted to live and think in their own way. The French settlement, in the mean time, went slowly forward; too inconsiderable to raise any jealousy, and too weak to attempt any encroachments.

During the reign of Charles II. the power of France was every day increasing; and as he never disturbed himself with remote consequences, he saw the progress of her arms and the extension of her dominions with very little uneasiness. He was, indeed, sometimes driven by the prevailing faction into confederacies against her; but, as he probably had a secret prepossession in her favour, he never persevered long in acting against her, nor ever acted with much vigour; so that by his feeble resistance, he rather raised her confidence than obstructed her designs.

But that we may not condemn other countries as wanting perseverance or wisdom, who took no such large strides to establish commerce and navigation as France, it must be considered, that their ministers had a power of acting, which freer governments do not allow. They could enforce all their orders by the power of an absolute monarch, and compel individuals to sacrifice their private profit for the public good; they could make one understanding preside over many hands, and remove difficulties by quick and violent expedients. Where no man thinks himself under any obligation to submit to another, and, instead of co-operating in one great scheme, every one hastens through by paths of private profit, no great change can suddenly be made; nor is superior knowledge of much effect, where every man resolves to use his own eyes and his own judgment, and every one applauds himself only in proportion as he becomes richer than his neighbour.

Colonies are always the effects and the causes also of

navigation. They who visit many countries will be always inclined to settle in some ; and these settlements once made must keep a perpetual correspondence with the original country to which they are subject, and on which they depend for protection when in danger, and for supplies when in necessity. So that a country once discovered must always find employment for shipping, more certainly than any foreign commerce which, depending on casualties, it is in the power of the nations so traded to, to suppress. A trade to colonies can never be much impaired, being in reality only an intercourse between distant provinces of the same empire, from which intruders are easily excluded ; likewise the interest and affection of the corresponding parties, however distant, is still the same.

Such is the fate of England and France, that the colonies of each country are not less contiguous than the mother countries are to each other ; so that the least disagreement even in the most distant region—and such disagreements there must always be—must more or less affect the countries of Europe, and they will be most powerful who are capable of giving those distant dependants the most speedy relief.

We live in a country where at length our interests and our liberties seem to be understood by the people, and not infringed upon by the great ; the advantages of our colonies, therefore, must be considered to be the same with our own. It is different with our enemies ; they are not permitted to see their own interests, or if they do, they are obliged to act in conformity with the will of others. The time is now come, in which every Englishman expects to be informed of the national affairs, because he himself is immediately concerned in their carrying on. That is a part of his liberty ; it ensures his certainty of that liberty, and he has a right to be gratified in his expectation. Whatever may be urged by ministers or their dependants concerning unbounded confidence in our governors, and of the presumption of prying with profane eyes into the recesses of policy, yet surely it will be always proper to disentangle corruption and illustrate obscurity ; to show by what causes every event was produced, and in what effects it is likely to terminate ; to show whence happiness or calamity is derived, and from

whence it may be expected; and honestly to lay before the people what enquiry can gather of the past, and conjecture can estimate of the future.

Productions of this nature, which promise to instruct or amuse the reader, are already so numerous, that the writer of the present History finds himself under the necessity of informing the reader in what he differs from his rivals, in order to solicit public attention. True it is, that promises made by undertakers imply somewhat of demerit in their performance; every man thinks himself at liberty to deride them, and yet every man expects that he who offers himself a candidate to the public should name his pretensions.

The reader is here offered a regular connected history of the present war,¹ and the motives previous to it, which he has hitherto seen only in the desultory and partial accounts of the papers of the month or the day. The facts are related with simplicity, and examined with candour, stript of all the rancour, or the blind applause lavished without judgment or discretion by diurnal compilers, those echoes of the vulgar. He will probably see many things stated in lights which had before escaped him, and many anecdotes of persons and things with which he was before unacquainted. The materials are not collected from newspapers, unless when more authentic information could not be found. I have neither acted the part of a flatterer nor a satirist; for there are few things that deserve praise, and fewer still that deserve censure; as men are oftener fools than knaves, and act wrong from want of skill rather than through corruption. Whether I have done justice to public merit, or drawn private worth from obscurity, the reader must determine. In a word, I have some expectations from his judgment and skill, but still more from his candour and indulgence.

¹ Perhaps we here have part of the title of the work for which these essays on 'Our Own Times' of the *Literary Magazine* were re-written and amplified. Prior ('Life,' i. 380) points out an advertisement of a work entitled 'A Complete History of the Present War,' to be published early in 1761 by L. Davis, C. Reymers, Owen and Scott; but Prior failed to find a copy of the work in his time, and we have not succeeded in finding one since.—ED.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.—OF ENGLAND.

It has been remarked by all writers of the Continent who have occasion to mention the English, that they are the proudest people upon earth. I shall not take upon me to determine whether this pride proceeds from the superior liberty of our government, or whether the freedom of our constitution proceeds from the prevalence of this disposition: certain it is, that though other countries may have more popularity in their constitution, not one is possessed of so much intrinsic liberty. It is this which is regarded as the Englishman's birth-right; this gives him a power of examining into the conduct of his governors, and of considering himself as a part of the legislature, in however subordinate a situation. As the Briton is reckoned to have greater freedom than the inhabitant under any government in Europe, so his country is allowed to be richer, if we take in the products of the soil and the commodities imported, than any other. From this combination of liberty and property¹ results what is generally called "the good of our country." This is an expression used by many; yet few properly understand in what it consists, since men generally regard that to be their country's good, which is correspondent with their own connection, or which lies nearest to their limited views. Thus, the merchant shall regard the welfare of his country as consisting only in commerce, the soldier in war, the politician in well guaranteed treaties, and the land-holder in a freedom from taxes; the one clamours against armies and continental connections, the other against luxury and the effeminating arts of peace; a third desires the prosecution of vigorous measures, and a fourth clamours for a change of every governing minister, who is the supposed instrument of taxation. From this

¹ See the interpolated—"Liberty and Old England, Liberty, property and Old England for ever, huzza!" in the speech of Goldsmith's famous "private sentinel," 'Citizen of the World,' Letter CXIX., vol. iii., p. 433.—ED.

opposition of interests and sentiments, however, results a real advantage, and as in mechanics a multiplicity of opposite attractions is equivalent to absolute rest, so this diversity in government produces tranquil security.

The first order of our politicians are those who still preserve the maxims of our patriots of the beginning of the last century. They place the true interest of the nation in keeping our affairs as distinct as possible from those of the Continent, as our country is removed from it by nature—which, by surrounding it with the sea, seems to have made it a world of itself. We are, say they, only to protect our commerce, and every other advantage will necessarily follow. It must be confessed that many plausible things have been advanced, as well as great authorities alleged, in support of this doctrine; but whatever truth there might have been in it a century ago, it has little, however, to do with the present state of affairs. It will be proper, however, to examine it, to perceive what influence such an opinion ought to have on the conduct of our affairs.

The expeditions made by our ancient princes for the maintenance of the countries they possessed in France, or in support of their claim to that crown, might very probably impoverish this nation; and how much soever their success might enlarge the power, or exalt the glory of those monarchs, they might be far enough from being useful to their subjects. Notwithstanding what has been said, it is possible they might also be in some measure necessary, as our constitution then stood. France might serve as a drain to carry off the peccant humours in the political constitution at home; and we shall have the more reason to be of that opinion, if we consider that such of our princes were always most popular at home as made themselves renowned for their victories abroad; and that such as pursued a contrary conduct were very seldom free from domestic insurrections, or foreign invasions. The figure that Great Britain makes at present in Europe, arises from her being in a situation very different from that of times past; our present greatness is owing to maxims very different from that of neglecting every thing that passes without the bounds of our own island. The wise Queen Elizabeth, who laid the foundation of that wealth and power which we

now possess, acted upon quite different principles, and was so far from disregarding foreign affairs, that it will be found they never were better managed or understood than in her time. She it was that deterred the Spaniards from their views of universal empire, not barely by providing for the security of her dominions at home, but by employing money and men to occupy them with perpetual diversions abroad. She prevented France from becoming a province of Spain, which must have been fatal to the liberties of Europe; and she afforded that assistance to the estates of the United Provinces, that enabled them to become an independent republic, which has contributed in succeeding times to assist in the leagues formed against the growing power and ambitious designs of France.

At that time, continental connections were thought necessary: how much more should they be so at present, when our colonies are so numerous, our commerce so extensive, and our trade so much in the power of potent neighbours! Were any single power to usurp a larger dominion on the continent than they at present possess, what certainty would England have of continuing her power at sea? What security could she have for her colonies abroad? Add to this, the people relying only on commerce for support, may in the end be fatally mistaken. The nations to whom a trade is at present beneficial, may, in the end, be prevailed upon to carry on that traffic themselves: revolutions may happen in their governments, and several other accidents may intervene, either to obstruct commerce or to turn its current another way. Upon such a failure, the nation which has no other support, no intrinsic strength, nor well regulated alliances, must necessarily be a prey to every invader: elated with all the pride of former wealth, yet enfeebled by all the misery of present distress; fancying itself strong, but actually weak—such a nation may and will engage in wars which will at length turn to its own ruin. Venice and Antwerp may serve as instances of the truth of an assertion which seems self-evident, without the assistance of history to confirm it.

The expediency of continental connections being shown, it will be proper, in the next place, to consider the most natural of those connections which Great Britain should

cultivate; what countries are most likely to be of service to her and to posterity, and what will, probably, be the consequence of her alliances already contracted. It is almost unnecessary to mention, that whatever promotes our wealth and secures our liberties, is conducive to the good of the country; and whatever weakens, impairs, or circumscribes either, is repugnant thereto. We may easily, considering things in this light, derive from thence a true notion of the interest of Great Britain with respect to the other powers of Europe, and be able to judge when that interest is really pursued, and when it is either neglected or abandoned.

The first point which our interest demands, is the maintaining others in their rights, and to support the independency of the other powers of Europe; because an accumulation of power in any one potentate, naturally diminishes the inhabitants of the countries put under subjection; it extinguishes industry and impoverishes them, and consequently must be detrimental to us, whose wealth is, in some measure, derived by commerce from those countries oppressed by another's power. Besides, inordinate power upon land may, in time, produce an equal degree of naval strength; and a rivalry there would be inevitably fatal.

Another point is the stipulating with foreign nations proper terms of security, indulgence, and respect for our subjects and for the effects, which, from time to time, they shall carry into those countries; in return for which, we must covenant on our parts to perform what may be thought reasonable. When these kind of alliances are made with proper deliberation, they become binding to us in the most solemn manner, and we are obliged to fulfil them punctually; so that whatever different form appearances may wear, the true interest of Great Britain is always to comply exactly with her treaties. A third rule is to resent wrongs done us vigorously, and without delay, more especially where it is in our power to do it by employing our naval strength; as in such a case it redresses the present injury, raises our reputation for the future, and employs that force which might be enfeebled by long habitudes of peace. We ought, likewise, to assist any nation that is unjustly attacked, or in danger of oppression, not only from the motives

always assigned, but in order to testify our love of freedom, to show that we are not only ready to assert, with respect to ourselves, the natural prerogatives of mankind, but vindicate the privileges of others.

Then there still remains another demand we have from foreign powers; viz., the same protection from them that we afford to others, and a reciprocal intercourse of good offices; for instance, it is expected that no foreign power professing friendship with England, will give to others the title of ensigns or royalty contrary to what the body of his¹ nation have established by law. This point our liberty demands to be complied with, and on this Britons should ever insist.

These rules constantly attended to, are sufficient to keep us upon good terms with all the world, and to make it the interest of every potentate and state of Europe to court and to respect our friendship; which should never be venal, but given with the generosity of a people too rich to receive rewards, and too brave to desert the oppressed. If these rules should at any time be incompatible with private interest (as no doubt they often will), the happiness of individuals, or any private body of men, should ever be sacrificed to public advantage, and a less immediate good to one greater, likely to accrue to posterity.

It appears in some measure from our history, and much more from our records, that we have always had a close connection with the northern powers. Our old treaties with Sweden, Denmark, and Poland confirm this, and our alliances with Russia seem older than those contracted with most other powers. We have, as occasion required, acted either as mediators or allies in favour of all those powers. The Swedes in particular have been frequently indebted to us for assistance; and in the last century they detached themselves, in great measure, from the interest of France, for the sake of our friendship; which was a measure very beneficial to all Europe. Their friendship must ever be more useful to us than ours is to them; as it must, in general, with all those countries from whence we have materials for employing industry at home, and commodities

¹ Query: should we instead read—title *or* ensigns of royalty contrary to what the body of *this* nation, &c.?—ED.

which we may manufacture for foreign markets. Whatever wars, then, they carry on among themselves; whatever alliances they contract, or friendships they experience, it is our interest to take no part that may embroil us with either. With them, we can always act a neutral part, unaffected by their jealousies, and unendangered by their most violent debates. From their situation and climate, from the nature of the people and barrenness of their soil, it is impossible they should ever be able to rival us in commerce: it is our business, therefore, rather to cherish than repress these northern nations, since even if they should at any time grow too powerful by land, there is a wide extended frontier, not less than the greatest part of Europe, between us. But this is a change not likely to happen; at least, within the compass of human foresight.¹

The next natural connection—by which I mean such connections as are prejudicial to neither party—is with Italy. Notwithstanding the remote situation of this country, we have hitherto shown a just and laudable regard to its interests; in truth, distance is a consideration of small consequence, especially to a maritime power. Our commerce in the Mediterranean and the Levant is of the utmost importance, and we cannot but be sensible, that whatever alterations may have been made in Italy have affected our commerce also in a high degree; so that whatever steps we have taken, either during the continuance of peace by negotiations, or in time of war by supporting the only prince in Italy who declared for the common cause, and was true to his own interests, which were likewise ours, were right and just measures, and have left those impressions which will never be effaced by any arts or intrigues; whatever may be given out, to serve their own purposes, by those who have an interest in pursuing contrary measures.

Spain is next to be considered; with which crown our affairs have a long time been in a very perplexed situation,

¹ The opposite of this seems to be enforced by the curious letter on the 'Folly of the Western Parts of Europe Employing the Russians to Fight their Battles':—'Citizen of the World,' Letter LXXXVII. The latter, to be sure, is one of the few letters purporting to be by Fum Hoam, and it may therefore be put forth as giving the *other side* of the argument. Fum Hoam's view, by the bye, is curiously close to the Russophobia view of the present day.—ED.

notwithstanding that it is generally thought the Spanish ministers have such true notions of their own interests, as never to be willing to give any cause of jealousy to the crown of England. They have long been sinking in the estimation of the rest of the powers of Europe: it is certainly, therefore, their interest to stand neuter in the controversies of other potentates, but at the same time to infuse such jealousies into the powers with whom they might desire to appear formidable, as to make their enmity dreaded, at the same time that they may be courted for their friendship by the opposite party. Without all doubt, it is our interest to live in a perfect correspondence with that court; such measures have been long since pursued, and no pains have been spared that are requisite to remove all jealousies and discontents on both sides.¹ The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle was ineffectual for this purpose; and it is owing to the address of our ministers since that time, that those differences have been concluded in such a manner as to prevent at least any colour for beginning a new war. It is, however, from future negotiations, when Great Britain is more unemployed, and consequently at leisure for the inspection of minute matters, that we are to hope an absolute conclusion and adjustment of the terms of friendship to be observed by both nations. It is true, delays are disagreeable; but they are sometimes necessary, and at present to demand abrupt explanations might be attended with consequences repugnant to our mutual interests. At a proper time, it is to be hoped that each nation will go to the bottom of their grievances, that succeeding ministers may have a full, explicit, and well concerted treaty for their guide, upon which the subjects of both crowns may rely, without ambiguities to perplex, or any other colour for collusive evasion.

We have long lived in a state of the utmost friendship with the crown of Portugal. The subjects of each country carry on a very extensive traffic to their mutual advantage; we have had, till very lately, all the benefits and advan-

¹ This appears to show that the present portion was written before the declaration of war with Spain in January, 1762; and as most of this chapter did not appear in the *Literary Magazine* version, it may have been written not much before that time.—ED.

tages that the most sanguine avarice could expect in favour of our merchants; and if there happen to be at present some little discontents, it is to be hoped that they will be redressed upon the proper remonstrance. The Portuguese have always been considered, and deserve the appellation of, our faithful friends and allies. These have been the rules of behaviour between both courts in times of perfect tranquillity, and when nothing further was necessary to evince the cordiality of esteem on both sides. But when a difference arose between them and their neighbours of Spain, our fleets were ready to assist them; when, from the unforeseen stroke of Providence, their capital was laid in ruins, our treasures were generously employed in their relief.¹ Such are the connections which at first blush appear convenient to both parties, and are the natural result of our commercial views and interests. In our connection with these, liberty is out of the consideration, since that can be impaired neither by the enmity nor the friendship of the powers of which I have been speaking. With those we consider ourselves only as a commercial nation; they have but a small influence on our politics, since that part of them which affects our wealth alone is concerned; but there are other nations of Europe with whom we contend, not only for riches but for freedom. To establish both, we cultivate their alliance or form combinations against them; we may, when at war with these, in a literal sense be said to contend *pro aris et focis*, for all that is valuable or all we regard as such. The powers I refer to are France, Germany, Prussia, and Holland. They and Great Britain may be said properly to be the governing nations of the republic of Europe. In their hands lies the balance of power; which is kept in equipoise, perhaps not less by their wars than their treaties. By the accretion of power in the house of Brandenburg, and the diminution of that of the United Provinces, have arisen a new system of policy and new cause for contention, which will, probably, like other hostile commotions which have of late disturbed the face of Europe, leave each of the belligerent powers in a state similar to that in which they began the war.

¹ In allusion, no doubt, to the destruction of Lisbon by earthquake in 1755.—ED.

But, to take a more exact view of these countries, let us examine their political views and connections separately, and endeavour to investigate the wishes and the fears of each; survey their past conduct as far as it influences their present, and conjecture what may be the result of their present views and operations.

CHAPTER II.—OF FRANCE.

It is generally agreed upon, that the power of the kings of France was anciently restrained, not only within narrower bounds than at present, but that in reality they were as much limited as any monarchs could be. But still they had a very extensive frontier to defend, and aspiring neighbours, who at that time aimed at universal monarchy; this obliged the French kings to keep on foot a large standing army, which at once preserved the inhabitants from the incursions of their enemies, and gained their kings a vast degree of popularity among the vulgar, who are capable of perceiving no other but that of a conqueror. By degrees, however, these armies which were at first levied for the protection of the subject, became, in the hands of ambitious monarchs, the means of oppressing them; so that in proportion as France became more formidable to her enemies, her subjects lost their freedom.

From this arose in the kingdom two separate interests, that of the king, and that of the people. The views the court proposes to itself are absolute power in the monarch, and unbounded dominion over its neighbours. These at first sight appear very different from, or, to speak the truth, are directly opposite to, the true interest of the nation; for considering the soil, climate, and situation of the country, and the number of its inhabitants, as they have no reason to fear, so they have no cause to distrust their neighbours; and as the several provinces of the kingdom furnish almost all that can contribute to the pleasure or wants of mankind, they might enjoy within themselves all the happiness a people could desire. A government, therefore, that con-

sulted the good of the people, and the general benefit of its subjects, would labour to preserve peace, and be assiduous in cultivating those arts which are the consequences of ease: this would, perhaps, tend as much to increase the power and fix the security of such a government, as the contrary measures which are now pursued tend to strengthen and aggrandize that absolute monarchy which has been erected there on the ruins of their ancient constitution by the present reigning family.

A scheme, however, entirely opposite to this has been carried on for at least a century past, with great steadiness and conformable success. We have, therefore, no reason to hope that the court of France will be induced to change her measures, which might now be looked upon as altering the model of government; so that looking upon things in a political light, we must consider the court and its interests without having any regard to the interests of the people, who are quite out of the question. The grandeur of the crown, which, with great impropriety, is in that country styled the glory of France, appears to be the ultimate aim of her ministerial measures; upon this they have fixed their attention so long, and have magnified it so much, that but very lately it occupied solely the cares, and fixed the attention of all the people. When I say very lately, I have in my eye the glorious but ineffectual struggles of their parliament for liberty: the country now seems to assert the privileges of human nature, to regard the pre-eminence of monarchs only as artificial compacts; their writers, in spite of power, inculcate those principles, and perhaps we may see this nation one day rival us in freedom, as they do now in the arts of peace. But hitherto we have seen only the dawnings of that spirit; their court still goes on in the same tract¹ of politics they have long pursued, and endeavour to work principles of absolute submission into the very spirit of all their laws. To propagate this, every measure of state is employed, treaties made, wars undertaken, and alliances agreed upon.

The great instrument in the hands of despotism is a large standing army; but those forces which in time of war

¹ Should be *track*. Mr. Skeat says, "Track, a path, course," &c., is "confused with tract in our old authors."—ED.

may be serviceable, in times of peace may be equally pernicious. Large armies must be provided with employment, or they will be apt to make it for themselves; or should military discipline be so well preserved as to keep the army in subjection to the civil power, yet in a long peace their vigour is destroyed, and they become relaxed by every effeminacy in fashion. Besides, a soldier in peace becomes contemptible and poor; war is the only season for promotion, and consequently soldiers are more easily recruited when they expect immediate rewards. Thus a despotic monarchy ever finds it its interest to be at war; but then the prudence of its measures lies in the choice of a proper object to be at war with. A power more strong or formidable than itself can never be the object on such an occasion; it must, to act with conformity to its own maxims, make a selection of some neighbour who may make a small but an unequal resistance. This has been the policy of France for many years—to attack some neighbouring power, and continue the war until such alliances were formed as made the power attacked able to oppose her projects: then it was always thought high time to patch up a peace, and to remain content with part of the advantages acquired in the beginning of the war. With this view the wars of France have for more than a century been carrying on, and their power increasing. Whatever may be pretended by other courts, that of France was certainly the secret and original cause of the present commotion in Europe. The empress queen, though naturally ambitious and revengeful, though stripped of what she thought her just dominions, and lying under the ignominy of being compelled to compliance, yet even she found these passions too expensive for her to gratify either, and in all probability would have rested contented under irremediable losses. But France wanted a war, and such an one as might diminish the force of her rivals for power without impairing her own. Nothing could be more for her advantage than the discontents between the house of Brandenburg and Austria, since the diminution of their power was in political estimation an accession of power to herself. Such were her intentions when a quarrel with England was found unavoidably necessary. A long undecided frontier was to be adjusted

in America.¹ These were to have remained on the footing of former treaties; and lands could not be settled at that time in Europe that were thought wholly useless, or were utterly unknown. So distant a quarrel France was entirely unequal to; a superiority at sea must necessarily give the advantage there, and England was greatly her superior in this respect; all that was to be done was to bring the flames of war into Europe as speedily as possible, to attack England on some pretext or other in her closest allies, and at the same time to embroil other powers, so as to prevent their succouring the countries they should invade. In short, Hanover was to be the theatre of French invasion; and as it was thought to be incapable of any vigorous resistance, they intended to keep possession of it as a pledge for the conduct of Great Britain. The affairs of Europe being thus adjusted, and sufficient work as they imagined cut out for the armies of England, they threw off the mask with regard to America, sent their troops to secure their possessions there, and invade what they termed the encroachments of England. The erection, acquisition, and maintenance of a few paltry forts were pretended as the grounds of the contest; but the scheme was much deeper laid, and affected the very vitals of the English empire in America, and consequently, in Europe. By the help of their missionaries, men who at once served the interests of religion and their country, they gained over to their side the savage but warlike inhabitants of this country, who generally lived by hunting and wandering along those trackless deserts for a precarious subsistence. In these regions they built forts, and used every art for exterminating English interests wherever they came. Their power here they imagined sufficiently established to endure a war, and therefore it was begun as usual by invasion. Their generals were mostly regular bred soldiers, an advantage which they knew the English were wholly destitute of; but above all, their common men, inured to hardships and poverty of living, kept in the field in seasons when the English could not even in their camps sustain the severity

¹ Between Canada (until this war owned by France), and the English possessions in North America. For France, and Europe generally, at this time see also 'Citizen of the World,' Letter LVI.—ED.

of the season, and served with cheerfulness upon provisions on which an Englishman must have starved. Their first successes were answerable; notwithstanding which, they would have found the undertaking more difficult than they at first imagined, had not a fatal division in our public councils entered the English governments which they were to attack, and who, like the Jews of old when besieged by the Romans, were destroying each other while the enemy was entering their gates with fire and sword. But in one respect they were far more unpardonable even than that deluded people, who generally discontinued their bickerings when the common foe was to be assaulted, which was not the case with the English colonists; unreasonable obstinacy on the side of power, and unreasonable avarice on that of property, kept them divided in the greatest dangers.

Meanwhile it was matter of amazement to all Europe that France, in the acquisition of a territory which, to all appearance, was not worth the conquering, should spend such immense sums, and form such dangerous intrigues as she did upon the continent of Europe. Her designs, though long suspected, were not absolutely detected till the management of her commissaries, who were appointed to treat with those of England, and to settle her limits in America, made it extremely plain that she had formed such pretensions there, as, had they been carried into execution, must have totally ruined the most beneficial of our colonies, and must have engrossed to herself the commerce of the new world. The court, as well as the people of England, were fully sensible of this, and therefore resented it accordingly; but their resentment France thought insignificant, as it was put into execution at four times the sum of what it cost them to carry on the war. They knew the state of our finances, and thought government credit strained so high, as to be in danger every day of breaking; they knew the immense charge of hiring transports, the only method the English had of sending troops to that part of the world; a charge almost beyond credibility, perhaps greater than if those transports had been the actual property of government. The charge of embarking and disembarking troops, artillery, and baggage was equal in proportion; but, above

all, the inconvenience of having no port upon the ocean from which our armaments could sail directly, gave this enemy of Great Britain infinite advantage every year; and every season's experience showed the irreparable inconvenience of being obliged to fit out our armaments from the Tower of London; from whence it requires two or three winds before they can proceed directly on their voyage. Some ships have been known to wait so long in port as to consume their whole stock of provisions for America, and this twice successively, while they have been as often re-victualled. The French, on the contrary, by sailing directly from Brest, have not only a cheap, but what was more precious, an expeditious passage to their colonies: they knew the importance of this, and availed themselves of it. They thought it was the worst economy in the world to burthen the public as we did with unnecessary and immense charges for transports, only that the captains and other officers of their ships might have more room and live more commodiously. Thus the war in America must cost the English treble the expense of her enemies; wherefore it is ever the interest of France to begin the war, as thus she loads her enemies with extraordinary expenses and ever gains great advantages before they are prepared.

With regard to expense, peace and war are almost always alike to a nation who makes peace only an interval in which to prepare for a vigorous infraction of it. Thus it is probable France will be ever ready to declare war with England, and as ready to make peace when she finds her enemies properly prepared to resist her. She may, and it is highly probable she will at times of peace dissemble her real views in favour of trade, which there is no question she will encourage and promote all that lies in her power, that it may in some measure repair the losses occasioned by her wars; but there is no room to suppose that she will at any time remain quiet for several years together, because that must many ways endanger a government like hers, by creating factions in the court, relaxing the military discipline of her armies, and giving time to her neighbours to put themselves into a state of security against her ambition.

How England should behave in the present crisis is a

subject not easy to be determined. France certainly wants a peace; all her views of going to war have been already answered; she has loaded her enemies with debt; she has weakened that government whose greatest strength lay in their treasury; she only desires to set down for a while, with all things in the same situation they were at the beginning of the war.

Whether it be the interest of England to make a peace upon such concessions, it should be next our business to enquire.¹ We may, however, upon this occasion be permitted to remark that, as peace is the end of war, it is extremely injurious to the government to render a peace difficult, by prescribing impracticable conditions, by teaching the multitude to expect concessions from the enemy which every reasonable being knows our enemies cannot be compelled to make, and precluding the benefits which might accrue to us from the real advantages which will for ever do honour both to our councils and arms by an absurd exaggeration of them. However, should affairs be adjusted, at the conclusion of the present war, upon the same footing they stood upon its commencement, it is extremely evident that the French will ever have the advantage of us, by beginning the war afresh; and that each advantage so obtained, will in the end, contribute to weaken us and add strength to them. But it may not be easy, or perhaps proper, to determine the degree of power that may be expedient for us to leave the French in America, in case we should be so successful in all our attempts as to bring them to our measures. That stubborn disregard of the English government, which in times of the greatest danger manifested itself in several of our provinces, seems to make it necessary they should be continued in a condition to be obliged always to have recourse to, and dependence on, their mother country; which would perhaps not be long the case, were they entirely rid of all apprehension from the French.²

¹ These paragraphs, to the end of the chapter, are not in the *Literary Magazine*. They evidently refer to the taking of Canada by the English, and so show that they were written about 1760. Much the same counsel to moderate our demands in making peace will be found in the essay on 'Rejoicings for Victory' in our vol. iv., that essay also dealing with the conquest of Canada.—ED.

² Here we have a prediction which was soon verified. Canada having

As to the supposition of their joining the French, it would be a measure of so much rashness and folly, as well as wickedness, that it seems to deserve no further notice.

The French possessions, therefore, in America should be restored ; as they at once serve to prevent our colonies from forgetting their dependence, and to awe the court of France by our manifest superiority in that part of the world. We have been long considered as superior at sea : were it in the power of any articles of peace to get that power ascertained, by preventing the enemy from building above a certain number of ships of war, then, indeed, we might on both sides hope for a long and lasting peace. It is necessary that the power of France by land should have some counterpoise ; her strength and her riches are never so well known as by her losses. We see that notwithstanding she has, within the space of two years, lost upwards of a hundred thousand men in Germany ; notwithstanding the immense sums she has dissipated among the northern powers, in keeping them either neutral or steady to her interest ; and notwithstanding her furnishing the queen of Hungary, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, and the other German princes in the alliance, with all the money which helped to put their troops in motion, yet we still see her able to pour new armies to her assistance, and fresh supplies of money into the coffers of her friends. Such amazing strength, I say, should have some counterpoise. From Prussia it cannot be expected, since the strength of that kingdom at present is merely artificial and transitory ; as it rose to its highest pitch under the present monarch,¹ so it probably will decline when he is no longer to support it. All the other powers whose interest it is to check the growth of French power, either bribed by her wealth, or persuaded by her councils, conspire with her against their own independence ; it lies, therefore, upon England alone to prescribe the proper terms of peace, and to provide such a treaty as will disable France from beginning a new war but at a manifest disadvantage. The house of Bourbon will not, indeed cannot, relinquish her present system,

been given up by France in 1763, the American War of Independence broke out, with the destruction of the taxed tea, in Dec. 1773.—ED.

¹ Frederick II., afterwards called "The Great."—ED.

which must always render her terrible to her neighbours ; but still there wants not a power sufficient to render all her intrigues abortive, and to defeat all her enterprizes, though supported by her utmost force.

CHAPTER III.—OF PRUSSIA.

THE interests of this monarch, if considered at large, might take up a large treatise. A man whose whole time is spent in studying the welfare of his subjects, has many connections unseen by the vulgar, and many designs which are known only to himself.¹ The house of Brandenburg, for more than a century, has been growing into power by a succession of wise and excellent princes, who laid out their lives in encouraging arts, promoting industry, inviting foreigners into their dominions, and levying such armies as might render them respected by their neighbours. By wisdom and by justice they have raised a kingdom whose power is great, if we regard the shortness of its existence, but small in comparison with that of other monarchs whose strength has been confirmed by time. Whatever artificial strength the dominions of the king of Prussia could acquire has been added to it ; but unless a happy concurrence of the same events that gave this kingdom power continue in its preservation, it is to be feared it will again sink into its primeval obscurity. The kings of Prussia have long had two objects in view ; they regarded themselves as members of the common confederacy against the ambition of France, at the same time that they were, plainly, as princes of Germany, the only guardians of the Germanic constitution. Here then was a very difficult part to act ; the house of Austria's ambition was to be restrained, who aimed at destroying those liberties which Prussia thought herself entitled to defend ; but every resistance to the Austrian power was a diminution of it, and consequently an accession of power to her rival of France,

¹ See Goldsmith in praise of Frederick II. in the chapter on Learning in Germany ('Polite Learning,' in our vol. iii.) and elsewhere.—ED.

and the common enemy of Europe. A third power was therefore requisite to regulate these alliances and disputes, and to prevent the ill consequences that might result from too great an increase of power in the states of Austria and France. It was the Prussian interest to see the balance of Europe kept exactly even: the king, therefore, paid constant attention to the measures pursued by Sweden and Denmark, and had ever a watchful eye upon the empire of Russia, as upon his diligence in those respects, he fancied the security and grandeur of his state to depend. This was a scheme which for a while was conducted with the most refined policy, and the greatest stretch of human prudence. From each of these powers he, by his address, drew some advantages, and without offending any, was considered as the natural ally of each. But how weak is human prudence against unexpected contingencies; and how little avails the wit of man, when Providence thinks proper to controvert his designs! He imagined the empire of Russia secure in his interests; but by the late revolution in the empire of Russia, the whole system of his affairs were changed with respect to that alliance. Instead of a close conjunction, it brought about a division of interests; and from an intimate union, created a distant civility, at first intermixed with some degree of jealousy, so much harder to be removed from his close alliance with the excluded family, with whom he had all the connections of friendship and mutual interests. Nor was his alliance with the crown of Sweden more fortunate. By marrying his sister to the then successor and now king of Sweden, he expected to secure the amity of that country; which, from other motives, he also expected would befriend him upon every occasion; but a late unfortunate attempt to enlarge the prerogative of the crown of that kingdom, has rendered the senate of Sweden more powerful, or at least established their former pretensions, by which he is looked upon with a jealous eye; and his connections with the royal family only serve to render him more obnoxious to the hatred of the members of the Swedish aristocracy. The house of Austria saw the distress of his situation, and was desirous of taking the advantage of it, but had neither strength nor courage to avow her designs. France, however, privately offered her assis-

tance, and the empress queen meditated the rescuing her Silesian dominions, which she regarded still as hers, though ceded to Prussia by all the formality of treaty. Notwithstanding all the obligations she lay under to his Britannic majesty, who wisely foresaw that being sincere in that cession was the only means of restoring tranquillity to Europe, she suffered symptoms of dislike to escape her on every occasion; and an apparent reluctance discovered itself in every measure of even common civility which she was obliged to observe towards his Prussian majesty. Such a behaviour could not fail of putting so penetrating a monarch upon his guard, and even obliged him to continue those forces for his interest, which he might otherwise be willing to do from inclination. France still continued her apparent friendship to the house of Brandenburg: she was ready to lend her assistance to any power that could serve to embroil the affairs of Germany; but soon, however, they perceived Prussia to have greater strength, and consequently, from sound politics, thought themselves bound to side with the weaker, as this might give their assistance at once the appearance of equity, and draw the war to greater length, which was to be the grand result of all their designs.

Whatever politicians may fancy of unexpected occurrences, the junction of the houses of Austria and Bourbon was certainly foreseen when he concluded an alliance with England. But at that time he regarded Hanover as a sufficient barrier between him and France; and by the good conduct of its generals it appears to be such at this time. He long desired the alliance of England, a power so capable of giving him real assistance in his commercial views; and this friendship could be purchased only by the loss of that of France. By France taking part in the war, he knew that he should encounter some difficulties, but at the same time he hoped greater advantages at the conclusion of a peace. Besides, he imagined that Russia would perform her treaties with England; and in her, from a suspected foe, he hoped a powerful friend. Such considerations made it both his interest and inclination to cultivate the friendship of the English; a league which, though it did not happen to turn out entirely to his advantage, will pro-

bably, in the end, be more beneficial to him than any other he could have contracted.

The king of Prussia has great forces, large revenues, a genius capable of conducting both, and a moderation that will restrain him from attempts superior to these. He knows perfectly well, that the grandeur of the sovereign must be established upon the welfare of the subject; and this has excited him to show the same regard for the happiness of his people as for the extension of his own power, or rather has induced him to make the latter always subservient to the former. Without a constant resource, he knows his power must be transitory; and this he can have by no other method so much as commerce. He has ever been known to have an inclination to become a maritime power, or, which is the same thing in other words, to enable his subjects to increase their wealth by their industry through the channels of foreign trade. What power, therefore, could so much promote his designs of this kind as England?—a power which cannot fear him for a rival in greatness; which has no inclination to restrain, and has great abilities to protect her enterprizes of that nature. Whenever the struggles of power, which at present raise all Europe to arms, shall be composed, we have very little room to doubt that his majesty of Prussia will turn his whole views to commerce, since the very important and commodious port of Embden¹ lies open to facilitate his schemes. There he may form such plans as will reimburse those expenses he has been at in securing his acquisitions, if not to the present generation, at least to posterity.

CHAPTER IV.—OF GERMANY.

Naturally, in the course of our design, we proceed to the empire of Germany, which is to be considered in two lights: first, as a country composed of many different states, in their civil government independent one of another, and

¹ Embden, or Emden, was ceded to the Netherlands in 1808, but at the extinction of Hanover in 1866 it again became part of Prussia.—ED.

under sovereigns absolute within themselves: secondly, as these above mentioned states forming one great confederacy under a common head, upon which they have a political dependence, though that very supreme power is under control by the constitution of the empire, and the regulations of its own tribunals.

With respect to the first, it is necessary the uninformed reader should be told, that all things relating to the government of the German empire ought to be regulated according to a writing called the Golden Bull. This was prepared by the emperor Charles IV. in the year 1356, and received the consent of all the states of the empire. It regulates the election of the Emperor, his privileges, his vicars, the rights of electors in general, the privilege of each elector in particular, the prerogative of the princes and states, the Diets, and the sentences of the empire. Notwithstanding the strict adherence to this writing in general, these regulations have sometimes been dispensed with; for though it ordains that the election of an emperor should be made with the consent of all the electors, yet in 1742, the Emperor Charles VII. was chosen without the suffrage of the Elector of Bohemia, who was Queen of Hungary, and would never acknowledge him. Likewise the city of Aix is the place where the emperor ought to be crowned; yet the Emperor Joseph was crowned at Augsburgh in 1690; Charles VI. at Francfort on the Main, in 1711; as well as Charles his successor, in 1742. By this Bull, the number of Electors were fixed to seven; yet this did not hinder the house of Bavaria from obtaining that dignity in 1623, nor the house of Hanover, in 1692. The number of Electors at present is nine, viz:—1. Mentz, 2. Treves, 3. Cologne, 4. Bohemia, 5. Bavaria, 6. Saxony, 7. Brandenburg, 8. Palatine, 9. Brunswick Lunenberg; of this number Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, are archbishops. The Emperor has no estates in quality of his prerogative, nor any revenue to support his dignity; and therefore they always choose one who has dominions of his own. The throne may become vacant several ways; as by death, resignation, as was done by Charles V., and by deprivation, which happened to the Emperor Wenceslaus. The power of the Emperor consists in appointing a meeting of the Diet, and other imperial

assemblies, as well as in dissolving them. He has a right to authorize their determinations, and afterwards to put them in execution in his own name. He can confirm alliances and treaties which his predecessors have made for the good of the empire. He can create and confer high secular dignities; such as King, Prince, Archduke, Duke, Marquis, Landgrave, Count, and Baron. He can require an oath of fidelity from all the electors, princes, and other members of the empire. He has the entire disposal of the states and principalities which devolve to the empire by forfeiture or otherwise, and he can institute and confirm universities and academies. All this may be done from his sole authority; but he must have the consent of the electors when he would alienate or mortgage anything belonging to the empire, or grant the privilege of coining money, or confiscate the goods and estates of rebels. The consent of all the states of the empire is necessary, when he would regulate anything relating to religion; declare war in or out of the empire; impose subsidies or general contributions; raise troops; build new fortresses; put garrisons into old ones; make peace and alliances. But if the case is very urgent, the consent of the Elector is sufficient; and he can, by his own authority, agree to a truce, or a suspension of arms. He may issue out admonitions, directions, and prohibitions in writing; but these are not binding unless authorized by the Diet, and then they have the force of a law.

When the Emperor is elected, he is obliged to certain restrictions of his power, in consequence of a capitulation made with the electors and states of the empire. It is a sort of contract, which he agrees to before he is declared emperor, and which he ratifies after his election. When there is no emperor, or he is absent, the king of the Romans acts in his stead; but if there is no king of the Romans, it devolves to the two vicars,—the Elector of Saxony, and the Elector Palatine. The former exercises his prerogative in upper and lower Saxony; as does the latter on the Rhine, Swabia, and Franconia; for these are the places where the ancient laws of the Franks were established.¹

The empire of Germany, in its present state, is only a

¹ The constitution of the Golden Bull remained, generally, in force till the dissolution of the old German Empire in 1806.—ED.

part of those states that were once under the dominion of Charlemagne. This prince was possessed of France by right of succession : he had conquered by force of arms all the countries situated between the Baltic Sea and the Danube. He added to his empire the kingdom of Lombardy, the city of Rome and its territory, together with the exarchate of Ravenna, which were almost the only possessions that remained in the West to the emperors of Constantinople. Those vast estates were at that time called the empire of the West, being only part of what the Roman emperors were formerly in possession of. In succeeding times, and particularly after the extinction of the race of Charlemagne, France was separated from the empire, and the Germans elected Otho the Great for their sovereign ; who again made the conquest of Rome and Italy, and reunited them to his dominions. At length, when the bloody disputes between the priesthood and the empire engaged the government from attending to the conduct of its vassals, several petty and almost independent sovereignties were erected under different pretences ; and the emperors being unable to repress their usurpations, were at last contented with a very precarious homage, and confirmed by their authority the possessions of the usurpers. Not contented with this, those who had acted thus wrongfully, had influence enough to get their encroachments continued by an hereditary succession. The emperors, at that time, had no other method of balancing the power of these vassals, which was frequently greater than their own, but by granting several lands to the church, and liberty to several cities. Such is the true original of the power of the states which compose the German empire. However, the emperors have often testified inclinations to revive their ancient rights, and have claimed dominion over Italy and Rome. But scarcely any thing now remains of those possessions, but empty titles without any real jurisdiction.

Several authors have found a great difficulty in determining in what class of government that of the German empire ought to be placed. In fact, if we consider it as having at its head a prince to whom the estates of the empire are obliged to render homage, to swear fidelity and obedience, and to receive from him the investiture of their fiefs, we

shall be induced to regard the empire as a monarchical state. But, on the other hand, the emperor can be regarded only as the representative of the empire, since he has not even the power of making laws: in the same manner, he has no possessions annexed to his dignity; he may grant the investiture of fiefs, but he can upon no pretence recall this grant once made, without the consent of the empire; besides, in speaking of the states, the emperor always calls them the vassals of us and the empire.

If we consider the power and prerogatives of the states, the part which they have in the legislation, and the privileges which each of them exert in their own proper dominions, we shall have reason to consider the empire as an aristocratical state. Lastly, we shall find in their Hans-towns democracy prevail, and they have voices at the Diet or council of the empire; from all which we may conclude that the government of the empire is that of a mixed republic.

Thuanus, in speaking of the German empire, remarks, that it is astonishing that so many powerful people, without being forced either by a fear of their neighbouring nations or by necessity, could ever concur in forming a state so powerful; a state which has subsisted for so many ages, and of surprising strength, considering the weakness of the greatest part of the members which compose it. This observation, however, we must take the liberty to contradict; for those people have never been united to form one state, but those subjects have rendered themselves independent who before were in subjection, still, however, preserving that degree of subordination which was consistent with their mutual safety. Interest keeps them together, and this is surely a most prevailing consideration.

It is not to be doubted but that the empire, composed as it is of several very powerful states, must be considered as a combination that deserves great respect from the other powers of Europe, provided that all the members which compose it would concur in the common good of their country. But the state is subject to very great inconveniences; the authority of the head is not great enough to command obedience; fear, distrust, and jealousy reign continually among the members; none are willing to yield

in the least to their neighbours; the most serious and the most important affairs with respect to the community, are often neglected for private disputes, for precedencies, and all the imaginary privileges of misplaced ambition. The frontiers are all ill guarded and ill fortified; the troops of the empire are but few in number, and ill paid; nor are there any public funds to supply these defects, as none are willing to contribute to them. The so much boasted liberty of the Germanic body is nothing more than the exercise of arbitrary power which a small number of men happen to enjoy, while the emperor is incapable of preventing them from oppressing the people; who are reckoned as nothing and used like slaves, although the force of a nation consists in these alone. Commerce is subject among them to continual exactions, from the multiplicity of rights which are claimed by every power through whose states the goods must be necessarily transported. This renders their fine and navigable rivers almost useless. The tribunals of justice have but small salaries, and even these ill paid; yet, still worse, the number of judges is insufficient. In the Diets of the empire, their deliberations are carried on with the most insupportable tediousness, and render this government ridiculous to the nations around: to whom the dilatory proceedings of Germany are almost grown into a proverb. This slowness is sufficiently described in the following Latin lines, which, though rough, are however replete with meaning:

Protestando convenimus	Conclusa rejicimus
Conveniando competimus	Et salutem patriæ consideramus
Competendo consulimus	Per consilia lenta, violenta vinolenta.
In confusione concludimus.	

From this epitome we may see that the interests of the reigning emperor are very different from those of the electing states, and that the present house of Austria have views very different from the good of the electors on the Diet in general. Let us then consider the interests of this House, and we shall find them naturally fall under the following heads; in almost every one of which we shall find it at present acting contrary to its real interests, and laying a train which will, in the end, turn to its own destruction.

Their first consideration should be, to preserve the imperial dignity in the family to which it is at present restored ; as it is the interest of the princes and states of the empire, for preserving a bulwark against the infidels, a proper balance against the power of France, and the tranquillity of Germany, to place the imperial dignity in that family which shall regard the Turks with jealousy, France with envy, and the powers of Germany without any degree of envy. The house of Austria, therefore, should have ever conspired with the views of her associates in empire, should have endeavoured to maintain the freedom and independence of the empire, together with the privileges and immunities of all its members. This conduct alone could secure to that house the support of the empire upon all occasions ; which, though from past experience politicians may possibly consider as a thing rather of show than of consequence, yet it might become of great efficacy and importance. For as the interests of the emperor and the empire in sound policy should be always the same, so if they were constantly and firmly united, it is very evident that the Germanic body would always be an equal, if not an overmatch for France, her natural foe, without the assistance of any other power whatever. A gentle and mild administration, therefore, without any formidable preparations that, by their nature, must seem intended only against the liberties of the constitution ; an administration that might serve to conciliate the hearts of the German princes, so as to bring them to feel just and warm sentiments of their own interest, would have been a most easy and expeditious means of inducing them to confide in, and pay a proper respect and duty to, the head of the empire. This would have detached them from France, and from every other foreign power ; none of which ever had, or ever can have, any influence over them, but from their real or imaginary apprehensions of the power of the house of Austria, and its desire to reclaim privileges which time has confirmed others in the possession of. Had these precautions been observed, the emperor might in time become one of the greatest and most formidable powers of Europe ; that is, considered in a defensive light, if attacked without reason or just provocation, and would therefore be revered by his neighbours instead of being dependent upon

them, and be capable of protecting his allies, without ever falling under the necessity of seeking beyond the limits of Germany for assistance. This opinion may be easily supported, if we consider that the emperor, by his prerogative, has many opportunities to benefit and oblige most of the princes and states of the empire, and can always defend and protect them. This power, therefore, wisely and seasonably exerted, might suffice to bring about all that I allege might have been expected from it: but if we consider the present conduct of the emperor in this light, in what despicable circumstances of prudence will he appear; his empire torn with factions; his inveterate enemy, by assisting one part, weakening both, and consequently in political estimation, growing itself stronger; a part of the empire disgusted merely upon a religious account, and the balance of Europe grown an empty sound!

The next point that claims our regard is the interest of the house of Austria as a member of the Germanic body. As to this, it is apparent that her power was, at the beginning of the present war, sufficiently great to be compatible with the interest of the other powers of the Germanic body, and that it cannot be for her advantage to endeavour to increase it at the expense of her neighbours; which is, indeed, the sole thing which has hitherto turned, or can at any time turn to her prejudice. Had she remained satisfied with her possessions, and formed no designs upon the dominions of others, it is highly probable that she would have found her neighbours disposed to live with her upon terms of friendship, amity, and respect. The house of Austria misplaced her ambition in attempting to grow greater by war: the commerce of her dominions; the navigation of her rivers, and the cultivation of those immense barbarous countries that lie within her jurisdiction, would have given sufficient employment to any sovereign, and procured immense happiness to the people. Almost all her hereditary countries are capable of great improvement; the kingdom of Bohemia and the provinces that border on the Adriatic, more especially. Some of those nations that in the last and present war are famous for furnishing her armies with irregulars, are known to have a great turn for trade, and, if properly

encouraged, might render her more effectual services by the arts of peace than by their valour in war. But that spirit, this family, ever destined to be the tools of the designing and the bigots of ill-directed zeal, have taken all opportunities to suppress. Those brave people want religious liberty; for the house of Austria piques itself upon its attachment to the Popish faith, and has already persecuted those very inhabitants who, in her former wars, served as her strongest bulwark against the invasions of her enemies, and were the warmest friends in her cause, and the cause of liberty. And yet for all this attachment to the court of Rome, her returns have been very few; nay, she has, upon all occasions, shown a manifest attachment to the house of Bourbon. Any relaxation in this kind arising from Christian charity, sound policy, or the gratitude of the court of Vienna, would have wonderful effects; for it would not fail of rendering all the countries under her obedience more populous, and consequently more rich and fruitful, than they are at present. Neither should this liberty of conscience have extended to the Lutherans and the reformed [churches] only, but also to the members of the Greek church, to the Moravians, and to every denomination of Christians. This would have drawn multitudes out of the Turkish dominions into those of Austria, and contributed at once to strengthen the empress and weaken her enemies.

Our last consideration is the interest of the house of Austria with regard to the sovereignty of the Low Countries—a point of the greatest consequence to that family, as well as to the interest of Europe in general. It is by her being in possession of these provinces that she, in sound politics, should have continued the natural and perpetual ally of the maritime powers, who had never failed to show, upon all occasions, the utmost readiness to support her interest. By her being in possession of these countries, she was considered as a barrier between Holland and France, and might have been said to be placed there as guardian of the liberties of Europe. Had she inviolably preserved those countries, she could not fail of preserving the affection of her neighbours, or at least they would not have the imprudence to avow their enmity; those were

pledges of her universal respect, and amounted almost to universal empire. She had fatal experience, by former distresses, of the dreadful consequences which followed the neglecting her frontiers on that side; and all people imagined she would avoid like mistakes for the future. But the giving up the port of Ostend to be garrisoned by the French, without any other deposit for its restitution but barely the promise of his most Christian Majesty, was such a blunder in politics as cannot be well reconciled even to common sense. Is it to be doubted that the French are so eager to place a garrison there from interested motives? or can a calm spectator think, that they who can find pretexts to cover the most flagrant injustice, will not be able to furnish enough to keep possession of a garrison which unlocks the liberties of mankind, and which, while possessed, must continue them truly formidable to all the powers of Europe? The giving up this port was not only injustice to the Germanic body, but was betraying the trust of Europe. In her hands it was placed as the most sacred deposit; it was not so much given her to possess as to preserve, nor had she a right to alienate it without the universal consent of those powers from whom she received the investiture. Thus, in whatever light we regard the politics of the house of Austria, we shall find them destructive of its own interests, tending towards the aggrandizement of its enemies, and subversive of the general liberties of Europe. We shall find its politics without sagacity, its reasonings tinctured with zeal, and its councils embarrassed by factions. The interests of the house of Austria had always been justly regarded as incompatible with each other: France had risen into opulence from the spoils of that family, and they two were generally considered to poize the fates of Europe between them; yet still some very whimsical circumstances attended this dissension. The family of Austria, the most bigoted votaries of Popery and the most abject tools of superstition, was however the chief prop of the protestant interest in Europe. The family of Bourbon, on the other hand, had saved the liberties of the Germanic body, and supported the freedom of its constitution.¹ While those two great powers were

¹ The corresponding passage to this in the *Literary Magazine* (1758,

thus mutually employed in humbling each other, their counteraction had operated to salutary purposes; but their struggles now ceasing, and an inauspicious alliance taking place, the balance that regulated their motion is lost, and till that can be recovered, their movements will only end in the loss of public liberty, both civil and religious. This balance scarcely now continues to subsist; or at least the present combination of interests bids fair to destroy it.

The present emperor was raised to the bed of the most august princess, and to the throne of the most august empire in Europe, merely because he was so totally insignificant, that his acquiring them gave no jealousy to any power in the world.¹ The specimens he gave of his temper and disposition, from the time of his marriage to that of his election, were such as could no way alarm any of his cotemporaries. This, however, has been proved by experience to be by no means a measure of the most refined policy. For a prince who had great interests of his own to pursue, with a proper spirit to support them, never would have been conducted by a weak woman, who at best was conducted by a priest.

Gratitude was never one of the most shining jewels in the imperial crown, when worn by the family of Austria; nor indeed have the princes of that house ever been so much distinguished by their virtue and abilities, as they have been by their fortunes and dominions; and perhaps there is not in all the experience of history, an instance of any other family where so many men reputed great have risen out of so little merit. Cunning, ambition, and a conjuncture of happy accidents, are all that could recommend Charles the Fifth, their greatest boast; while a

January, p. 4), runs as follows:—"The interest of the house of Austria and Bourbon had been long considered as incompatible with one another, but with some very whimsical circumstances attending them. For within these hundred years the family of Austria, the most bigotted votaries of Popery, and the most abject tools of superstition, has been the chief prop of the protestant interest in Europe, and was in fact the mainspring of our glorious Revolution in England. On the other hand the house of Bourbon, the common subvertors of the rights of mankind, has, within this same period of time, saved the liberties of the Germanic body, and supported the freedom of its constitution."—ED.

¹ Francis, who married Maria Theresa, reigning sovereign of Austria in 1740, and was elected Emperor of Germany in 1745.—ED.

thousand despicable qualities, both civil and religious, contribute to turn his character into contempt, if not detestation. The present empress, in the early time of her life, bade fair to atone by her virtues for all that blind partiality which fortune had manifested for her family. Her youth, her beauty, her wrongs, her spirit, and her intrepidity rendered her the public care of England, and raised a compassion for her sufferings which sprung rather from motives of humanity than reasons of state. Our sovereign was employed in her cause, and our best troops sacrificed in her defence. But there are certain situations of life in which the ruling passion is discovered, however disguised or concealed by circumstances in the beginning. Unprovoked and unprepared, her imperial majesty therefore formed a design upon the house of Brandenburg; which, when carried to such a height as to be past all possibility of being disowned, was, by the caution of her adversary, first detected and then defeated. Still, however, she had it in her power to make a tolerable retreat; but far from that, she united herself with her professed enemies, put all her most valuable possessions into their hands, and availing herself of the fluctuating councils of England, flattered herself to be able to disunite the protestant power in Germany, by setting up its most redoubted defenders in opposition to each other. In this last measure, though she did not succeed to her wishes, yet, by a conjuncture of circumstances, she did not entirely want success. Yet, let us suppose this deluded woman at the summit of her wishes, gratifying private resentment, satiating her ecclesiastical advisers with protestant blood; let us suppose every power humbled so far as to own her sway—does she expect that the French will tamely resign what they shall happen to conquer? does she imagine that the Russians will not find some pretence for settling a colony in Germany? Thus, possessed of newly usurped and precarious privileges, will she be left in the midst of powerful enemies, who will undoubtedly reclaim something for fighting her battles; nor will they sacrifice millions of their countrymen for the empty glory of succouring an ally, whom they still must regard with the rancour of ill-cemented friendship! Nothing can be more certain than

that France could show no reason for invading Hanover, but in order to execute the imperial commissions, and those sentences which the forms of the Germanic constitution prescribe against those princes who fall under the displeasure of the house of Austria. The electorate of Hanover was so far from affording any pretence for attacking it, that it was offered a neutrality, the conditions of which were both shameful and dangerous; but they were such as many powerful princes of the empire have, without any imputation, been obliged to submit to, when prescribed either by the French or Austrians, as either happened to prevail. But nothing surely could have been more ill judged than to make France execute the imperial decrees; this was adding strength to the enemy, in that part where he chose that strength should be exerted.¹

As the conduct of the German princes in the present war is so blended with one another that they do not admit of separate considerations, the end of this sketch will be best answered by comprehending them under one view. The elector of Saxony lay under the greatest obligations to the generosity of his Prussian majesty, who but some years before was master of his capital. But that prince was governed by a wife warmly attached to the house of Austria, and a favourite, who was a bigot to the mischievous politics of Machiavel. I call Count Bruhl a favourite rather than a minister; because some abilities are required in the latter capacity, and we know of none he ever discovered either in the field or the cabinet. In his master's court and in his own palaces he shone with a prodigality that the electoral revenues, large as they are, could not supply; which might be one of the true reasons why his master, contrary to all sound politics, was brought into the schemes of the courts of Vienna and Petersburg against his Prussian neighbour. It is true the situation of Saxony, and the weight which that elector was supposed to have in Poland, rendered this operation extremely convenient and advantageous for her imperial majesty's designs. His Prussian majesty foresaw

¹ For the corresponding matter to this upon Austria, &c., in the *Literary Magazine* version, see that magazine, January, 1758, p. 5, and February, 1758, pp. 49-51.—ED.

this ; he knew how much depended upon the success of the first blow, and that the Poles would be determined by that event. The Poles possess a large extended country, without any army to defend their frontiers. Neutrality is their chief aim ; their interest is to have the forces of their neighbours so balanced, that neither party may force them from their scheme of siding with neither. Had the Prussian monarch waited until his enemies had an opportunity of putting their designs into execution, the Poles must infallibly have been forced into the league ; but so formidable a junction the prudent monarch of Prussia knew how to prevent. His preparations, his march, his progress, and his success were all equally rapid. The Saxons, enervated by two successive luxurious reigns, could not stand the terrible array of so formidable a power. The victor, though in possession of the whole of the electorate of Saxony, did not, however, make either an impotent or insolent use of his advantages ; and though he still retains it as a deposit for the expenses which the elector's unguarded conduct had forced him upon, yet the contributions he has exacted of the inhabitants amount not to one-half of the sums they were obliged to pay to their natural sovereign—perhaps the only instance in history in which a conquered nation found their religion protected, their taxes diminished, and their liberties extended, by being overcome.

From what has been said of the German empire it will no longer appear extraordinary that the empress queen was able to make no better stand against the power which she was long preparing to attack, but who at last put himself into the light of an aggressor. She was possessed of large funds, her armies headed by able generals, and her councils directed by able politicians. But, what are these advantages to a power that wants economy ? She has the art, in one rejoicing night, to dissipate sums that would serve to subsist a small army. The news of a defeat served only to make a night of festivity at her court ; and the cries of her subjects for redress were drowned in the symphonies of music, or the shouts of riotous entertainments. The funds appropriated for her military operations were mortgaged to devouring commissaries, the sons either of extortion or parade ; and the lucky stand she did make, was

mostly owing to the affection of the grandees for her person and family.¹

The battle of Colin² which his Prussian majesty lost, led both the court of Vienna and that of Versailles into a fatal error. Unacquainted as they were with the sentiments and resolution of a great hero fighting in his own person and for his own interests, they determined to give him no other concessions but what he must receive in the character of a suppliant. We are not to suppose the king of Prussia one of those unconsidering heroes who know no difference in junctures, or that he would at that time have refused a fair and honourable accommodation; but he knew that any other was worse than none. The convention entered into by the Hanoverians served to increase the insolence of his enemies. The queen of Hungary would offer no terms without the advice of France; and France found it her interest to offer no terms at all.

We need add very little to what has been already observed, to convince the intelligent reader that, should the four great crowns now in alliance succeed, a new system of power and property must take place in Europe. This is not only obvious to common sense, but demonstrable by notorious proofs. Not only the dominions of Prussia, but those of Hanover are to be wrested from their former possessors and shared between the invaders, particularly France and Austria; while the other two powers of the alliance are to be contented with what they can secure for themselves.

This view of the Austrian schemes would, however, be very imperfect, did we here omit laying before the reader one observation; namely, that as it is by no means the interest of this house that the princes of the empire should be too powerful, so the figure she now makes is owing to the greatness of those very powers she now endeavours to suppress; not to reduce, but to ruin. Systems of power are no other than combinations of interests; and every fluctuation of interest produces an alteration of system.

¹ Compare *Literary Magazine*, February, 1758, pp. 51-52.—ED.

² The battle of Kölin, June, 1757. The *Literary Magazine* version, almost literally the same, is at pp. 52-53 of the number for February, 1758.—ED.

He who some years ago should have heard of the present system, would have thought it incredible, and would never have conceived that the Elector of Hanover and the house of Austria would have embraced separate interests, and acted in contradiction to all their former maxims. Leopold, the grandfather of the present queen of Hungary, the most bigotted prince of his age, joined heartily in every measure that could aggrandize the house of Hanover; because he thereby secured his interests in England. His two sons, except in a few unnatural starts, followed the same maxims for the same reason; but France has had address enough to suppress the natural jealousy of her ancient rival, and now the object of its terror is changed. Germany is now truly destroying itself, and feels all the miseries of a civil war, without expecting a change for the better; which is generally the effect of intestine commotions.

CHAPTER V.—OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

WE now take our leave of Germany and proceed to the United Provinces; but in reality provinces united only in name. Perhaps their importance in the government of the European republic is now nothing: their spirit is lost, or directed into wrong channels;¹ their councils are factious or direct wrong operations; they let individuals batten on the spoils of their constitution; with all the feebleness of luxury, they indulge all the vanity of unperforming threats and inactive resentment. France is not only now their neighbour but their master, prepared to pour in its myriads upon their little spot of ground, once saved from the sea, and now in danger of as formidable a deluge. No longer do we see there the industrious citizen planning schemes to defend his own liberty and the liberty of Europe, but the servile money-meditating miser, who desires riches to dissipate in luxury, and whose luxuries make him needy.

¹ All this chapter upon the Netherlands follows closely upon the *Literary Magazine* account, February, 1758, pp. 53-56. It moreover is very like other matter upon the Dutch in various parts of Goldsmith's works, including 'The Traveller,' as cited at *ante*, p. 9.—ED.

All the spirited memorials presented them on the part of Great Britain to vindicate her honour and their own ; all the warm remonstrances made them by their best patriots, have produced nothing but new cause for discontent and faction, and fresh instances of a selfish spirit and a desire of being slaves. What shall we think of such a people ? or shall we give up their case as desperate ? By no means ! Calamity may again reduce them to their pristine virtue ; and as here light follows darkness, their potent neighbour will not be long ere he gives them reason to summon all their constancy and all their courage. Their beautiful palaces, gay equipages, and all the gilded trappings that adorn inventive luxury, will only serve to invite the invader ; for never did history furnish a single instance of a country very wealthy and very weak, that was not at last the prey of its more potent and poorer neighbours. But still I say, their calamity may bring them to an exertion of their former virtue ; for in no country is that political maxim more likely to take place—that dominion is to be maintained by the same arts with which it was acquired. Like the old Romans, they owed their rise to oppression ; and when the like circumstances returned, they had recourse to the same measure ; which was the election of a Stadtholder, and which saved them as effectually as that of a Dictator did the Romans. But the wanton exercise of the measure defeated its ends in both countries. While the Dutch had recourse to it only in times of extremity, it always answered the purposes expected from it ; but as that distress was always brought upon them by the prevalence of French councils or arms in their country, there has still been a perpetual opposition between the people and their natural government, which is republican. The members who compose the body of the legislature and who consider themselves as distinct from the people (the never-failing consequence of riches long continued in the same family), succeeding to their magistracies by a kind of never-failing rotation, have ever been fond of the protection of France. The maxims of the De Witts, who were the first who may be properly said to have rendered the government of the United Provinces aristocratical, rivetted this principle in their government. On the other hand, the

common people ever lean to the family of Orange and a Stadtholdership; since by that means their liberties were first secured. The critical rise of William III. to that high office was effected by a violent convulsion in their state, and it long operated to salutary purposes for public liberty. The accession of the royal dignity to that of Stadtholder, his unabating zeal against France, and the sincere love he ever bore his country, rendered him the darling of that people. He bent all the subordinate branches of their government to the ply of his own favourite passion, which was the hatred of France, and he chanced to be happy in the choice of his creatures; for his spirit remained in that republic for some years after he was dead. The magistracy of Holland soon, however, resumed their ancient principles.

The superiority which the Duke of Marlborough obtained amongst them upon the death of King William was only apparent, and was in reality balanced by D'Albuquerque, and the other leading members of the republic; who were very well pleased that France was diminished in power, but invariably opposed all measures for carrying the war into the vitals of France, as the Duke of Marlborough and the other allies had one year actually projected. Had not the English, therefore, at this time, the utmost reason, upon any terms, for concluding a peace? The Dutch, it is certain, had infinite advantages through the continuance of that war; and though they opposed a peace, it was only to prolong the benefits they reaped from war; for certain it is, they have ever appeared desirous of involving England in quarrels, without sharing the danger themselves. Their merchants look upon those of England as rivals in trade, and consider war as the proper interval in which they may step in and monopolize the whole. But though immediate profit may be the consequence of such politics, their posterity will severely feel their defects; they will find England strong at sea, and capable of giving laws to the ocean, merely from a long habitude of war.

But to proceed: King George the First and his friends continued to have a strong party in their government, which balanced the party that was ever in the French interest; and by this means the republic, though it made no acquisition in strength, lost but little of its former

vigour, until the year 1726, when they began to lean entirely to the French interests; some through fondness and others through fear. The residence of Van Hoey, a man weak by nature, rendered more so by age, who was their ambassador in France, gave Cardinal Fleury an opportunity of bringing the great members of their government back to the French principles, which had been long sown in their republic. Still, however, the people had courage sufficient to thwart their governors, or at least to intimidate them from pursuing any measures avowedly in favour of France. The marriage of the Prince of Orange with the eldest Princess of England, still further contributed to suppress the French faction, and gave the republic once more an opportunity of resuming its former lustre. In the late war against France, they were brought with the utmost difficulty to take a part; but their visible backwardness in that war, to call it by no harsher a term,¹ proved that the spirit of their government was averse to it. The people, among whom a love of country and the honour of their ancestors is always last remaining, plainly saw the treachery of their governors to the common cause, and were resolved once more to have recourse to a dictator, and the late Prince of Orange was elected Stadtholder. We shall not enter into any disquisition whether this creation was made at that period of distress that would justify it in point of sound policy; but his death, that happened soon after, blasted all the hopes the public had conceived of his virtues, which were undoubtedly as great as any that ever had existed in that family. The minority that succeeded, notwithstanding all the wise provisions made by the late princess, notwithstanding her virtues and abilities, has been of infinite prejudice to the cause of liberty in that country; and now the French party have got a complete victory, and seem to dictate every measure which is pretended to be enacted for public safety. This unfortunate commonwealth has already tamely submitted to the indignities of France; it has remonstrated against the encroachments of England; and has shown its weakness by its incapacity of redress. What, then, will be its fate

¹ The *Literary Magazine* has the same ugly expression thus—" (to call it no harsher a term)."—ED.

when France has time to breathe from her present wars? Every slight pretence will be caught in order to pick a quarrel; for it is natural for mankind to desire fighting when they are sure to be conquerors. To whom, in such circumstances, can the Dutch fly for support? England is irretrievably alienated from her interests; and even though the politicians of England should be desirous of saving her from ruin, yet the people, who form a large part in our legislature, would dissent. In short, they must be left to themselves to feel all the miseries of present slavery, with the painful aggravation of a consciousness of former freedom.¹

CHAPTER VI.—OF SPAIN.

SPAIN is the next country which deserves our notice;² between which and England, such a correspondence subsists as will render it very prejudicial for either to be an enemy to the other. Spain, by nature and interest, is more closely connected with England than any other country whatsoever; however the disparity of religion, inclination, and manners may have interrupted the good understanding between them which policy points out to both. The first connection which England had with Spain, in a commercial way, was through the Dukes of Burgundy, who were at the same time kings of Spain. This was in the reign of our Henry the VII., when the treaty which has been called since by the name of the “great” and the “golden” treaty was entered into between the two courts. The provisions of that treaty secured to the Spaniards all the advantages of their American commerce as it then stood. Queen Elizabeth was by no means satisfied that it extended to an absolute exclusion of the English from trading in those

¹ This version of these introductory chapters is in general, as we have said, an amplification of the *Literary Magazine* articles. Still, there is much in the latter which is omitted from the present version. For instance, at pp. 595-9, 1757, and pp. 1-3, 1758, of the *Literary Magazine* there is a good deal about Russia and Sweden and Denmark which has no place in the later version.—ED.

² This chapter very closely follows the *Literary Magazine* (at p. 55, &c., February, 1758), excepting as to the latter part.—ED.

parts, especially in those dominions that had been acquired by the Spaniards in the intermediate time; nor could she ever be brought to give up to the Spaniards that exclusive right of navigation to and from their own colonies, which they have ever since considered as so capital a point. Sir Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, who negotiated the definitive treaty with Spain, at London, in the reign of James I., found great difficulties on this head. The nation was in great hopes that a person instructed as he had been by Queen Elizabeth, would have followed her maxims, and would have either acquired some new privileges for the English in that navigation, or at least have left the matter open; in which case they did not doubt of being able to make their party good against the Spaniards. But James being at all events resolved upon a peace with Spain, gave up to her the exclusive right of trading to her own colonies, in the same manner as had been practised till that time. Salisbury, who greatly dreaded an impeachment on this head, exulted in getting the matter settled in these indefinite terms; and to say truth, they left the English traders pretty much at liberty to make what constructions they pleased on the words of the treaty; since there were few places in Spanish America to which they had not traded.

Matters between Spain and England remained in this situation till, by the peace of Münster in 1648,¹ Spain reasserted her exclusive right of trade and navigation to and from her American colonies, with all the other powers of Europe, excepting England, who had no plenipotentiary at those conferences. Cromwell, who always had flattered himself with the hopes of being one day master of Spanish America, availed himself of England being left out of that treaty, and strenuously insisted upon the privilege the English had to trade to the Spanish colonies. The Spaniards, who feared Cromwell more than they hated him, made him very extraordinary offers, if he would give up his claim, which they said was absolutely inconsistent with the very first principles of their monarchy; adding, in their peculiar manner of speaking, that the exclusive right to trade to their own colonies was one of the eyes of Spain, as the Inquisition was the other. Cromwell, however, obstinately

¹ The Peace of Westphalia, or Münster.—ED.

insisted upon it, and several proposals were offered Spain, desiring peculiar privileges for the English all over Spanish America. There is some reason to think that Cromwell, had he lived, would have been able to effect this design, by making himself a moderator between France and Spain; and thus, while both were weakened by mutual animosity, he might have obtained from either, through threats or from friendship, the concessions he so much desired. Charles II. was somewhat inclined to revive the claims of England; but it was now begun to be perceived, that France was growing potent from the downfall of the Spanish power, and England judiciously interposed, in order to save Spain from ruin. This monarch, however, concluded two formal treaties with Spain; one in the year 1667, relating to the Spanish European trade; the other in the year 1670, relative to our trade in America. This treaty has been couched in terms so ambiguous, that upon its interpretation both courts have been at variance almost ever since. The subject is of such importance to both crowns that neither are willing to concede, and even the indefinite treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle has left it to future discussion. The part which the crown of Spain has acted in the present war has been wise, honest, and greatly to the advantage of both nations. A war with Spain may enrich individuals in Britain, but can never be of public utility; nay, it must be of the most terrible national consequences; as the marine of Spain, if acting vigorously in conjunction with that of France, might form a fleet that would endanger the empire of the seas to England.¹

Upon a review of what has been said, if England considers its success in the present war, she will have the utmost reason to exult; but if the situation of the other states of Europe, she must feel all the terrors of painful apprehension. Such leagues, formed of the greatest and the most ambitious powers, look with the most inauspicious aspect on the liberties of Europe; and even allowing the small power opposed to such a combination ever so victorious, yet his own victories will in the end undo him.

¹ Here the articles in the *Literary Magazine* come to an end. What follows it will be seen is of later date, that date evidently coming near to 1763, when the "Seven Years' War" was concluded.—ED.

Like a sword long employed, he will be at last worn out ; and glory alone can be the only advantage he may acquire. A prospect so gloomy cannot but fill the mind with sadness : no courage can resist multitudes, no prudence can ward off fortuitous events, and no virtue can secure its possessor from ruin. Glory, respect, and honour, are only the rewards of a few ; and, though a hero should possess them in the most unbounded degree, still may the people be unhappy. After an expenditure of the most exorbitant sums of money ; after a breach of every tie that can oblige mankind ; after an effusion of blood that scarcely any other period can equal ; after all the calamities, burnings, rapes, and desolations of war ;—if after so frightful a picture of the present age, every power would sit down and be contented with the same state which they enjoyed before the war, how happy might Europe still be ! But this we can hardly expect, while ambition on one hand and obstinacy on the other prevent any accommodation ; while every victory, instead of procuring overtures of peace, only gives spirit to prolong the war. While rapacious ministers find their account in prolonging, and the deluded people find glory in continuing war, what hopes can mankind have once more to repose in tranquillity ; to talk again over the dangers of war, with all the pleasing satisfaction that past dangers will afford ; to cultivate the arts of peace, and leave to posterity the truly valuable possession of newly invented arts, sciences carried nearer to truth, and a constitution nicely regulated by all the caution of political wisdom ? ¹

¹ Our discovery that the first form of these chapters appeared in the *Literary Magazine* of 1757-8, substantiates to a great extent what we have advanced in favour of the authenticity as Goldsmith's work of other matter we have reprinted from that magazine, viz., 'The Poetical Scale,' &c., &c., in the *Later Collected Essays* of our vol. iv. It may be noted, too, in this connexion, that the whole of these contributions to the *Literary Magazine* exactly fit into the gap hitherto existing in the continuity of Goldsmith's work from the date of his first retirement from the *Monthly Review* in September, 1757, to the publication of the *Voltaire 'Memoirs,'* &c., in 1758.—ED.

PREFACE

TO

‘A POETICAL DICTIONARY.’¹

POETRY, begotten by Imagination upon Genius, their eldest offspring, preceded all culture; and as it was trained up with the rudest and earliest ages, so has it been the study and amusement of the most polished and enlightened. Some marks of it are to be found among nations of whose faculties observation obliges us to entertain a most contemptible idea: its footsteps may be traced amidst the snows of Greenland, and through the wildest paths of the American world. The Mexicans, when their territories were first discovered by the Spaniards, though unknown to letters or improvement, were not without a species of verse, in which appeared a vein of poetic inspiration. The seeds of poetry, in the opinion of the immortal Dryden, were implanted in the most barbarous minds; and Milton admits it to be almost coeval with human existence, by introducing our first parents pouring forth their devotions to the Creator in hymns.

The first prose writer taken notice of in history was a Greek, cotemporary with Cyrus the Great; previous to whose reign, some hundreds of years, flourished Homer and Hesiod; and much more ancient were the Sybils, Orpheus, Musæus, &c.

The origin of poetry was great and magnificent; for no sooner had man put in exercise those powers of reflection with which at his birth he was endowed, than he felt an

¹ ‘A Poetical Dictionary; or the Beauties of the English Poets Alphabetically Displayed. Containing the most celebrated passages in the following authors,’ &c. 4 vols. 12mo. Lond. J. Newbery, J. Richardson, etc. 1761. Unlike the similar selection made in 1767 by our author (see ‘Beauties of British Poesy,’ in the present volume), this work did not contain critical notes. The late Mr. Crossley, however, said that it contained “Goldsmith’s favourite passages.” Mr. Crossley said, moreover, that “The Preface is evidently written by Goldsmith, and with his usual elegance and spirit, and the selection which follows is one of the best which has ever yet been made” (*vide Notes and Queries*, Series I., vol. v., p. 534). The Preface is now first collected into Goldsmith’s works, chiefly upon this judgment by Mr. Crossley.—ED.

inward acknowledgment of the immensity and omnipotence of that supreme being to whom he owed his nature and perfections; and that acknowledgment broke forth in numbers of harmony. Thus like Jove-born Minerva, Poetry, even at her birth, appeared mature, and, as it were, invested with sovereign power. Her throne was founded upon religion; she thence gave strength to philosophy, form to policy, and regulation to manners. The arts were nurtured and invigorated under her hand; she even softened the rigours of the tumult of war, and her company was courted by Alexander, Scipio, Julius, and Augustus, in many of their expeditions.

It must be owned a little surprising, that a mode of speaking or writing, restrained by numbers, and bounded by regularity, consequently more tedious and difficult, should have been preferred to prose, which is loose, easy, and free from trammels. A reason is obvious, founded on truth and experience. Precepts, sentiments, or descriptions in verse, are more easily gotten by heart than those in prose, and make a deeper impression on the mind. The pleasures of harmony, and the easiness of numbers composed of feet one rising out of another, smooth the ruggedness of instruction, and stimulate the memory to recollection. Here we see plainly why verse was elder than prose, and why it was more used before the invention of letters. The same argument in behalf of its being afterwards every where improved and cherished will hold good.

The greatest ancient bards, from Homer to Horace, made it a point to mix the *utile dulce*, instruction with delight, in their compositions; and the latter lays it down as an essential property of the poem. Such a view was sufficient to impress the people with a veneration for the promoters of it; and on this account were they cherished and esteemed by the most ingenious of mankind, as well as the most powerful and wisest of states. Very different had been the case, if the mere intention of poetry had been to amuse; because then it had been too weak to seize the patronage of wisdom and virtue; nor could it ever have reached the heart, the only seat of noble and permanent satisfaction. The intention as well as excellence of the poets' labours procured them to be rewarded with the

most respectable denominations, as *priests of virtue, friends to mankind, and champions of morality*; and in the Latin, *priest* and *poet* were synonymous terms. To deserve a continuance of this noble distinction, has been one of the ends proposed to himself from his labours, from the earliest to the present day, by every true son of Parnassus. None of them have ever lost sight of it in developing the passions, painting characters, or delineating manners, whether particular or general, whether of men or nations. To execute these tasks with a masterly hand a man must be born a poet; but as he will find all his materials in Nature, she should be his particular study: he must follow her through all her transitions, and thence will he be taught propriety. He will learn to depict the English as heavy and phlegmatic, but deep thinkers, valiant and generous; the French light, airy, and superficial, but general readers, affable and humane; the Spaniards indolent and proud, with high notions of honour, and inviolable integrity. He will not paint Nestor rash, Ulysses choleric, Achilles patient, nor Ajax a coward. Virtue in his hands will appear in the most amiable light; vice in all its deformity.¹

As there is no modern language more happily adapted to express the various and delightful styles of poetry than the English, it being not only strong, copious, and energetic, but comprehensive and melodious; fit for the most sublime, sufficiently soft for the tenderest and most simple subjects; so no nation can boast greater poetical ornaments. Shakespear alone is a proof of this: but we have many others nearly equal to those vaunted of in more sunny climes, and who might have reflected glory on the most esteemed ages of antiquity. Not to be acquainted with their beauties when so very numerous (as we shall demonstrate), is an injustice to the nation, and a reflection upon ourselves. In forming a fine taste, and laying a foundation of true elegance, a knowledge of the poets has been always allowed by the best critics to be truly essen-

¹ This savours of advice to young poets, and reminds us that 'The Art of Poetry,' another publication of Newbery, has been attributed to Goldsmith. In our 'Note of Omissions' at the end of the present volume, we have shown why we think this attribution erroneous.—ED.

tial. If our own furnish us with the most admirable precepts, strong description, elegant thoughts, brilliant wit, and beautiful diction, is not the neglect of them unpardonable? To conquer this neglect, and make the rising generation pay a due tribute to the merits of their countrymen, is one of the ends of this collection. In a nation producing so many writers, it is astonishing a work of this nature should have been so long overlooked; a work that adds to the reputation of their country by exhibiting, as it were, the essence of her most refined geniuses.

France and Italy have long since pleaded their title to literary fame by publications of this nature. As we yield not to them in genius, why should we decline exhibiting an equal claim? Something of this kind has been attempted by Byshe, in his *Art of Poetry*; and one or two others have trod in his steps, and copied his imperfections. Their choice of authors has been very injudicious; and two parts out of three of their works are filled with quotations from Pope's *Homer*, Dryden's *Virgil*, and other translations of the classics. Here we are indeed struck with contrivance, conduct, fancy, sentiment, and character; but these are not the perfections of Dryden and Pope: it is *Homer* and *Virgil* we compliment in our admiration; the only merits of our great countrymen that occur, are classical knowledge, and talents for smooth versification. It is in their original works, their imitations of nature, and not of men, that we must look for that excellence in our most celebrated writers which reflects honour upon the nation, and helps to exemplify its literary character. We must seek it in the rapid boldness of *Shakespear*; the astonishing sublimity of *Milton*; the unbounded genius of *Dryden*, and others of our great poets, whose names and some of whose beauties will be found in the ensuing performance; and while they show the strength of Britain-born talents, they will convince the reader that we can justly boast as bold imagery, as daring metaphors, as warm fancy, as glowing imagination, as spirited language, and a strain of poetry as sublime and enthusiastic, as any nation under heaven.

The various topics of these volumes are arranged in alphabetical order, so that they may be easily found, and

the author's name is affixed to each. Here the man of knowledge and erudition will find an index to refresh his memory; the preceptor proper themes to exercise and enrich the mind of his pupil; and knowledge, supported by ornament, will be insensibly conveyed to the young gentleman's heart, who shall reap instruction from amusement. The variety and brevity of the quotations will afford him an inexhaustible fund of pleasure, to which he shall alway[s] be induced to return, while perhaps it would be very difficult to engage him to go attentively through a large and connected performance. The editor hopes the work may be also an agreeable present to the ladies,¹ many of whom boast a more refined taste than the generality of the other sex. If in his choice of authors and of passages he has manifested judgment, he is sensible the judicious critic will pay a proper respect to his intention, and he can safely say he has spared no pains in them. Mr. Wilks, of Dublin, who some time since published his entertaining view of the stage, furnished us with some materials from his elegant collection of poets, for which it is necessary here to thank him.²

The editor has kept clear of every quotation that savours in the least of obscenity, immorality, or vice: every quotation tends to enforce a contempt of vice; to paint virtue in her most pleasing colours; to promote the love of liberty, patriotism, and religion; and to impress a knowledge of the great creator of the universe; a conviction of the obligations humanity lies under to him; and to engraft noble qualifications that set the possessor superior to the glare of fortune and the splendour of courtly distinction.

¹ The British Museum copy of the work here prefaced belonged to the Princess Elizabeth (third daughter of Geo. III., and Landgravine of Hesse Homberg), whose autograph, in a juvenile hand, appears upon the title of each of the four volumes.—ED.

² This "Mr. Wilks, of Dublin," no doubt was Samuel Derrick, Johnson's and Boswell's friend, who succeeded Beau Nash as Master of the Ceremonies at Bath. In 1759 Derrick published a 'General View of the Stage,' using the name "Wilkes" instead of his own. He also edited poets, at least he published a good edition of Dryden; and, indeed, he was something of a poet himself. See notes on him at pp. 138, 154, vol. iv.—ED.

INTRODUCTION

TO

'PLUTARCH'S LIVES, ABRIDGED FROM THE ORIGINAL GREEK, AND ILLUSTRATED WITH NOTES AND REFLECTIONS, FOR THE USE OF YOUNG GENTLEMEN AND LADIES.' 7 vols., 12mo. J. Newbery, 1762.¹

BIOGRAPHY has ever since the days of Plutarch been considered as the most useful manner of writing, not only from the pleasure it affords the imagination, but from the instruction it artfully and unexpectedly conveys to the understanding. It furnishes us with an opportunity of giving advice freely, and without offence. It not only removes the dryness and dogmatical air of precept, but sets persons, actions, and their consequences before us in their most striking manner, and by that means turns even precept into example.

The perverseness, folly, and pride of men seldom suffer advice given in the common manner to be effectual. Nor is this to be wondered at; for though there is no action in life that requires greater delicacy, yet few are conducted with less. The advice of parents and preceptors is generally given in an austere and authoritative manner, which destroys the feelings of affection; and that of friends, by being frequently mixed with asperity and reproof, seems rather calculated to exalt their own wisdom than to amend our lives, and has too much the appearance of a triumph over our defects.

Counsels, therefore, as well as compliments, are best conveyed in an indirect and oblique manner; and this renders biography, as well as fable, a most convenient vehicle for

¹ In this work our author was assisted by Mr. Joseph Collyer, as appears from a correspondence with Newbery, which is included in the 'Letters' (vol. i., p. 452). Goldsmith, however, seems to have done the first four volumes single-handed. The 'Plutarch' was at first designed as the commencement of a series to be called the 'Compendium of Biography,' hence the treatment of biography generally in the Introduction.—ED.

instruction. An ingenious gentleman was asked what was the best lesson for youth? He answered, "The life of a good man." Being again asked what was the next best, [he] replied, "The life of a bad one." The first would make him in love with virtue, and teach him how to conduct himself through life so as to become an ornament to society and a blessing to his family and friends; and the last would point out the hateful and horrid consequences of vice, and make him careful to avoid those actions which appeared so detestable in others.

[Most of this Preface Newbery reproduced in his advertisements of the 'Plutarch's Lives,' and to the advertisement given at the end of the first edition of the 'Life of Richard Nash,' 1762, there is an addition. The addition may or may not be by Goldsmith. It is as follows:—

"What histories can be found (says the Marquis De Montesquieu) that please and instruct like the Lives of Plutarch? He paints the Man whose Life he relates; he makes him known such as he was at the head of the armies, in the government of the people, in his own family, and in his pleasures. In short, I am of the same opinion with that author who said, that if he was constrained to fling all the books of the antients into the sea, Plutarch *should be the last drowned.*'

"In the course of this work, all those actions which are usually called great and glorious, but which are productive of the most mischievous effects, will be particularly considered, stript of their captivating glare, and reduced to the standard of reason and justice."—ED.]

PREFACE

TO

'THE MARTIAL REVIEW; OR, A GENERAL HISTORY OF THE LATE WARS; TOGETHER WITH THE DEFINITIVE TREATY, AND SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE PROBABLE CONSEQUENCES OF THE PEACE.' 12mo. 1763.

THIS is an attempt to separate what is substantial and material, from what is circumstantial and useless in history. That of the late War¹ forms the brightest period of any in

¹ The "Seven Years' War." But that the Preface and Introductions given at pp. 7-59 are larger in bulk than this entire 'Martial Review,' the latter might be viewed as the history for which they were written. Can it be that the Introductions at pp. 7-59 were prepared for the 'Review,' but rejected on account of the disparity of size?—ED.

the British annals, and the author has endeavoured to do it justice by the manner in which he has recorded the several transactions, and the impartiality he has observed. As to the first, it is matter of opinion, and he must stand or fall by the judgment of his readers. His own intention acquits him of every charge with regard to the latter. He is sensible that, in many passages, he has the prepossessions of party to encounter; and the same must have been his fate had he adopted different opinions. He disclaims all systems in politics, and has been guided in his narrative by matters of fact only. In his reflections and conjectures, where his own lights failed him, he had recourse to those who were most capable of giving him proper information; and he has the satisfaction to believe, that when the prejudices of party are buried with their authors, the following pages, whatever defects they may have in point of composition, will be acquitted of every imputation of partiality, as rational entertainment and undeviating candour have been his only objects.

This review was first published in the *Reading Mercury*, and parcelled out every week in that paper till completed, when the gentlemen who had thus read it thought so well of the work that they desired to have it reprinted in this manner, that they might again purchase it in a more convenient form. The author thinks himself obliged to those gentlemen for the good opinion they entertain of his abilities and impartiality, and hopes their testimony will in some measure recommend his labours to the notice of the public.

[The last paragraph is omitted by Prior and Cunningham. Likely enough it is not by Goldsmith, even if the other part of the Preface is by him. But as it follows in the 'Martial Review,' as published in 1763, we give it. The paragraph, too, in a measure accounts for the book, which, it is said, was written by a member of mad Kit Smart's family, and was published by J. Newbery (Kit Smart's father-in-law), for the benefit of the mad poet. Goldsmith interested himself a good deal in the affairs of Christopher Smart. Prior says ('Life of Goldsmith,' i. 477): "On some occasions he is known to have given him money; at other times, to have contributed literary assistance. And some time afterward, when his unhappy friend was suffering at once under occasional confinement for debt, and the more dreadful affliction of mental derangement, he drew up an appeal to the public, with the view of raising subscriptions for his support and release, though doubts exist whether it ever came before

the public. Bishop Percy had seen this address in MS. ; and, in a letter to Malone (Oct. 17, 1786), mentions it among other detached pieces of our author which he wished to procure, as 'a paper which he (Goldsmith) wrote, to set about a subscription for poor Smart, the mad poet ; I believe this last was never printed.' " Percy did not find this address ; nor has it been found since. Mr. Forster says in an "additional note" to his mention of the 'Martial Review' that "Newbery had a considerable share in a newspaper at Reading (his native place), and that Goldsmith's compilation about the 'late war' [*i.e.*, 'The Martial Review'] had been printed in that paper from week to week before its publication in a collected form." This, however, seems to be a mistake. Newbery no doubt had a share in the *Reading Mercury*, and probably also a share in the firm of "A. M. Smart and Co.," of Reading, who published the *Mercury*, and also issued locally some of Newbery's London publications (see the imprint to the first edition of the 'Citizen of the World,' at p. vii. of our vol. iii.) ;¹ but Percy and Prior are most likely right in adjudging the text of the 'Martial Review' to be the work of another hand.—ED.]

PREFACE AND INTRODUCTIONS

TO

BROOKES'S NATURAL HISTORY.²

PREFACE.

OF all the studies which have employed the industrious or amused the idle, perhaps Natural History deserves the preference. Other sciences generally terminate in doubt, or rest in bare speculation ; but here every step is marked with certainty ; and, while a description of the objects

¹ In his 'Life of Goldsmith,' i., p. 339, Prior says that John "Newbery had been brought up to trade at Reading in Berkshire, but changed his occupation and residence, and being an intelligent man, with a taste for reading, commenced the business of a bookseller in London."—ED.

² The pieces here given were written for Brookes's 'Natural History,' a work in six volumes, issued by John Newbery in 1763. Percy gave the Preface in his edition of Goldsmith's Works, and was much annoyed that the Introductions were left out. Prior was the first to reprint the Introductions. The Newbery papers show that Goldsmith was paid thirty guineas for this work. See Goldsmith's receipts with our edition of the Letters ; also p. 2, and the subsequent notes.—ED.

around us teaches to supply our wants, it satisfies our curiosity.

The multitude of nature's productions, however, seems at first to bewilder the enquirer, rather than excite his attention; the various wonders of the animal, vegetable, or mineral world, seem to exceed all powers of computation, and the science appears barren from its amazing fertility. But a nearer acquaintance with this study, by giving method to our researches, points out a similitude in many objects which at first appeared different; the mind by degrees rises to consider the things before it in general lights, till at length it finds nature, in almost every instance, acting with her usual simplicity.

Among the number of philosophers who, undaunted by their supposed variety, have attempted to give a description of the productions of nature, Aristotle deserves the first place. This great philosopher was furnished, by his pupil Alexander, with all that the then known world could produce to complete his design. By such parts of his work as have escaped the wreck of time, it appears that he understood nature more clearly, and in a more comprehensive manner, than even the present age, enlightened as it is with so many later discoveries, can boast. His design appears vast, and his knowledge extensive; he only considers things in general lights, and leaves every subject when it becomes too minute or remote to be useful. In his *History of Animals*, he first describes man, and makes him a standard with which to compare the deviations in every more imperfect kind that is to follow. But if he has excelled in the history of each, he, together with Pliny¹ and Theophrastus, have failed in the exactness of their descriptions. There are many creatures described by those naturalists of antiquity, which are so imperfectly characterized, that it is impossible to tell to what animal now subsisting we can refer the description. This is an unpardonable neglect, and alone sufficient to depreciate their merits; but their credulity, and the mutilations they have suffered by time,

¹ For passages showing that Goldsmith had early in his career projected a translation of Pliny's *Natural History*, see the *Extracts from the 'Animated Nature'* which follow this collection of *Prefaces*.—ED.

have rendered them still less useful, and justify each subsequent attempt to improve what they have left behind.

The most laborious, as well as the most voluminous, naturalist among the moderns is Aldrovandus. He was furnished with every requisite for making an extensive body of natural history. He was learned and rich, and, during the course of a long life, indefatigable and accurate. But his works are insupportably tedious and disgusting; filled with unnecessary quotations and unimportant digressions. Whatever learning he had he was willing should be known, and, unwearied himself, he supposed his readers could never tire: in short, he appears a useful assistant to those who would compile a body of natural history, but is utterly unsuited to such as only wish to read it with profit and delight.

Gesner and Johnston,¹ willing to abridge the voluminous productions of Aldrovandus, have attempted to reduce Natural History into method, but their efforts have been so incomplete as scarce to deserve mentioning. Their attempts were improved upon, some time after, by Mr. Ray, whose method we have adopted in the history of Quadrupeds, Birds, and Fishes which is to follow. No systematical writer has been more happy than he in reducing natural history into a form, at once the shortest, yet most comprehensive.

The subsequent attempts of Mr. Klein and Linnæus, it is true, have had their admirers, but, as all methods of classing the productions of nature are calculated merely to ease the memory and enlighten the mind, that writer who answers such ends with brevity and perspicuity is most worthy of regard. And in this respect, Mr. Ray undoubtedly remains still without a rival: he was sensible that no accurate idea could be formed from a mere distribution of animals into particular classes; he has therefore ranged them according to their most obvious qualities; and, content with brevity in his distributions, has employed accu-

¹ It seems, however, that Gesner wrote before Aldrovandus [Ulysses Aldrovandus, 1527-1605], and that the latter, instead of being abridged by, borrowed of Gesner: *vide* Chalmers' 'Biog. Dict.,' art. Aldrovandus. No doubt the Johnston mentioned was John Johnston, author of 'A Description of Four-footed Beasts,' &c., Amsterdam, 1678.—Ed.

racy only in the particular description of every animal. This intentional inaccuracy only in the general system of Ray, Klein and Linnæus have undertaken to amend; and thus by multiplying divisions, instead of impressing the mind with distinct ideas, they only serve to confound it, making the language of the science more difficult than even the science itself.

All order whatsoever is to be used for the sake of brevity and perspicuity: we have therefore followed that of Mr. Ray in preference to the rest, whose method of classing animals, though not so accurate, perhaps, is yet more obvious, and being shorter, is more easily remembered. In his lifetime he published his "Synopsis Methodica Quadrupedum et Serpentine Generis," and, after his death, there came out a posthumous work under the care of Dr. Derham, which, as the title-page informs us, was revised and perfected before his death. Both the one and the other have their merits; but as he wrote *currente calamo*, for subsistence, they are consequently replete with errors, and though his manner of treating natural history be preferable to that of all others, yet there was still room for a new work, that might at once retain his excellencies, and supply his deficiencies.¹

As to the Natural History of Insects, it has not been so long or so greatly cultivated as other parts of this science. Our own countryman Moufett is the first of any note that I have met with who has treated this subject with success.² However, it was not till lately that it was reduced to a regular system, which might be, in a great measure, owing to the seeming insignificance of the animals themselves, even though they were always looked upon as of great use in medicine, and upon that account only have been taken notice of by many medical writers. Thus Dioscorides has treated of their use in physic; and it must be owned, some of them have been well worth observation on this account.

¹ John Ray, or Wray. He was the son of a blacksmith. Born at Braintree, 1628; died 1705. He is also famous for the collection of Proverbs which the late Mr. H. G. Bohn edited and added to for Bohn's Reference Library.—ED.

² Thomas Moufett, or Muffett, a physician of Shoreditch. He died towards the end of Elizabeth's reign.—ED.

There were not wanting also those who long since had thoughts of reducing this kind of knowledge to a regular form ; among whom was Mr. Ray, who was discouraged by the difficulty attending it. This study has been pursued of late, however, with diligence and success. Reaumur and Swammerdam¹ have principally distinguished themselves on this account ; and their respective treatises plainly show that they did not spend their labour in vain. Since their time, several authors have published their systems, among whom is Linnæus, whose method being generally esteemed, I have thought proper to adopt. He has classed them in a very regular manner, though he says but little of the insects themselves. However, I have endeavoured to supply that defect from other parts of his works, and from other authors who have written upon this subject ; by which means, it is hoped, the curiosity of such as delight in these studies will be in some measure satisfied. Such of them as have been more generally admired, have been longest insisted upon, and particularly caterpillars and butterflies, relative to which, perhaps, there is the largest catalogue that has ever appeared in the English language.

Mr. Edwards and Mr. Buffon, one in the History of Birds, the other of Quadrupeds, have undoubtedly deserved highly of the public, as far as their labours have extended ; but as they have hitherto cultivated but a small part in the wide field of natural history, a comprehensive system in this most pleasing science has been hitherto wanting. Nor is it a little surprising, when every other branch of literature has been of late cultivated with so much success among us, how this most interesting department should have been neglected. It has been long obvious that Aristotle was incomplete, and Pliny credulous ; Aldrovandus too prolix, and Linnæus too short, to afford the proper entertainment ; yet we have had no attempts to supply their defects, or to give a history of nature at once complete and concise, calculated at once to please and improve.

How far the author of the present performance has ob-

¹ R. A. F. Reaumur, 1683-1756 ; and John Swammerdam, of Amsterdam, 1637-1680.—ED.

viated the wants of the public in these respects, is left to the world to determine ; this much, however, he may without vanity assert, that whether the system here presented be approved or not, he has left the science in a better state than he found it. He has consulted every author whom he imagined might give him new and authentic information, and painfully searched through heaps of lumber to detect falsehood ; so that many parts of the following work have exhausted much labour in the execution, though they may discover little to the superficial observer.

Nor have I neglected any opportunity that offered of conversing upon these subjects with travellers, upon whose judgments and veracity I could rely. Thus comparing accurate narrations with what has been already written, and following either, as the circumstances or credibility of the witness led me to believe. But I have one advantage over almost all former naturalists ; namely, that of having visited a variety of countries myself, and examined the productions of each upon the spot. Whatever America or the known parts of Africa have produced to excite curiosity, has been carefully observed by me, and compared with the accounts of others.¹ By this I have made some improvements, that will appear in their place, and have been less liable to be imposed upon by the hearsay relations of credulity.²

A complete, cheap, and commodious body of Natural History being wanted in our language, it was these advantages which prompted me to this undertaking. Such, therefore, as choose to range in the delightful fields of nature, will, I flatter myself, here find a proper guide : and those who have a design to furnish a cabinet, will find copious instructions. With one of these volumes in his hand, a

¹ Compare the remarks here and in the before-going paragraphs with the advertisement, "To the Public," which follows.—ED.

² Of course Goldsmith is speaking here of Brookes's travels rather than his own. He, however, here, as in the advertisement given at p. 75, is to some extent "drawing the long-bow." R. Brookes, M.D., was the author of several popular medical books and works upon natural history and geography—notably 'Brookes's Gazetteer,' which Newbery also published, and which went through many editions - but it does not appear that he was a traveller or explorer of the dimensions shadowed forth by Goldsmith.—ED.

spectator may go with profit and delight through the largest museum, the British¹ not excepted, see nature through all her varieties, and compare her usual operations with those wanton productions in which she seems to sport with human sagacity. I have been sparing, however, in the description of the deviations from the usual course of production; first, because such are almost infinite, and the natural historian who should spend the time in describing deformed nature, would be as absurd as the statuary who should fix upon a deformed man from whom to take his model of perfection.

But I would not raise expectations in the reader which it may not be in my power to satisfy: he who takes up a book of science must not expect to acquire knowledge at the same easy rate that a reader of romance does entertainment. On the contrary, all sciences, and Natural History among the rest, have a language and a manner of treatment peculiar to themselves; and he who attempts to dress them in borrowed or foreign ornaments is every whit as uselessly employed as the German apothecary we are told of who turned the whole dispensatory into verse. It will be sufficient for me, if the following system is found as pleasing as the nature of the subject will bear; neither obscured by an unnecessary ostentation of science, nor lengthened out by an affected eagerness after needless embellishments.

The description of every object will be found as clear and concise as possible, the design not being to amuse the ear with well-turned periods, or the imagination with borrowed ornaments, but to impress the mind with the simplest views of nature. To answer this end more distinctly, a picture of such animals is given as we are least acquainted with. All that is intended by this is, only to guide the enquirer with more certainty to the object itself, as it is to be found in nature. I never would advise the young student to study any science, either Anatomy, Physics, or Natural History, by looking on pictures only; they may

¹ The British Museum, however, was only large by comparison at this time. It had been established only four years in 1763. Goldsmith's and Johnson's names appear amongst the earliest of the dozen or so of those who were the first frequenters of the Reading-room.—ED.

serve to direct him more readily to the objects intended, but he must by no means suppose himself possessed of adequate and distinct ideas till he has viewed the things themselves, and not their representations. Copper-plates, therefore, moderately well done, answer the learner's purpose every whit as well as those which cannot be purchased but at a vast expense: they serve to guide us to the archetypes in nature, and this is all that the finest picture should be permitted to do; for nature herself ought always to be examined by the learner before he has done.

[Here follow in the original some eight pages, giving an account of "Such animals as have newly come to my notice," which eight pages, it is conjectured, are probably not by Goldsmith. Being an account of "animals newly come to my notice"—and, in fact, a kind of appendix to the text of the Natural History—this portion of the Preface is likely enough to be by Brookes himself.—ED.]

TO THE PUBLIC.¹

OF all the studies which have employed the industrious, or amused the idle, perhaps Natural History deserves the preference; other sciences generally terminate in doubt, or rest in bare speculation; but here every step is marked with certainty; and while a description of the objects around us teaches to supply our wants, it satisfies our curiosity.

A comprehensive system, however, of this most pleasing science has been hitherto wanting. Nor is it a little surprising, when every other branch of literature has been of late cultivated with so much success, how this most interesting department should have been neglected.

How far the present performance has supplied the defects and reformed the errors of Natural History is left to the public to determine. Those who have read the Author's 'Practice of Physic,'² and his other Medical and Geogra-

¹ This only appeared in the publisher's advertisements. Some of the matter is in the foregoing Preface; but, as there is fresh matter, we give the whole.—ED.

² Dr. R. Brookes's. John Newbery published a second edition of his 'Introduction to Physic and Surgery,' in this same year, 1763. See *ante*, p. 73.—ED.

phical compositions, will see evident marks, not only of the Philosopher, but of the accurate and judicious Traveller; and cannot doubt that his abilities were adequate to this undertaking, and that he had abundant opportunities to convince himself of the truth of what he has asserted.

He has had, indeed, one advantage over all other Naturalists, namely of having visited a variety of countries, and examined the productions of each upon the spot. Whatever America or the known parts of Africa have produced to excite curiosity has been carefully observed by him, and compared with the accounts of others.

This work, though comprised within the compass of six volumes, has employed great part of the author's life; and there is not a figure represented in any of the plates but what was drawn by himself, or by his son, under his inspection. Nor has the reader's convenience been less considered than his pleasure and improvement. Each of these volumes, if printed as works of this kind usually are, might have been made a large quarto, and the whole have been sold for *six guineas* instead of *one*; but as the improvement of natural knowledge may conduce to the improvement of religion and piety, it was thought expedient to make this work as cheap as possible, that it might fall within the compass of every studious person, and that all might be acquainted with the great and wonderful Works of Nature, see the Dependence of Creature upon Creature, and of all upon the *Creator*.

INTRODUCTION.¹

OF QUADRUPEDS IN GENERAL, AND THEIR WAY OF LIVING.

WHEN we turn our eyes to that variety of beings endued with life, which share with us the globe we inhabit, we shall

¹ Introduction to vol. i. of Brookes's 'Natural History.' See *ante*, p. 2. The following is an extract from Bishop Percy's letter to Mr. Nichols (Nichols' 'Lit. Illus.,' vol. vi., p. 583), complaining of the omission of this 'Introduction' from the 1801 edition of Goldsmith's Works: "I have just seen the new edition of Goldsmith's Miscellaneous Works, in four volumes octavo, the press work of which does honour to your

find that Quadrupeds demand the foremost place. The similitude between the structure of their bodies and our own; those instincts which they seem to enjoy in a superior degree to the other classes that live in air or water; their constant services to man, or the unceasing enmity they bear him, all render them the foremost objects of his curiosity, the most interesting part of animated nature.

In the first ages of the world it is probable that all living creatures were nearer an equality than at present. Man, while yet savage himself, was but ill-qualified to civilize the forest. While yet naked, unarmed, and without shelter, every wild beast was a formidable rival, and the destruction of such was the first employment of heroes. But when he began to multiply, and arts to accumulate, he soon cleared the plains of its brute inhabitants; he soon established an empire over all the orders of animated nature: a part was taken under his protection and care, while the rest found a precarious refuge in the burning desert of the howling wilderness.

The most obvious and simple division therefore of Quadrupeds, is into the domestic and savage: by domestic I mean, such as man has taken into friendship, or reduced to obedience; by the savage, those who still preserve their natural independence and ferocity; who either oppose force by force, or find safety in swiftness or cunning.

The savage animal preserves at once his liberty and instinct, but man seems to have changed the very nature of domestic animals by cultivation and care.¹ A domestic

printing-office, and, as I conceive, to my kinsman your son, who, I presume, superintended it; but the proprietors would have done well to have consulted me in the selection and arrangement, for they have omitted one of the very best productions of Goldsmith, although it had been particularly pointed out in the account of his Life,—his 'Introduction to Brookes's Natural History,' and have only given his 'Preface' to that work, far inferior to the former. This is what they got by quarrelling with me for only supplicating a little assistance in advance to Goldsmith's poor niece, who was starving, for I would have given them every advice and assistance gratis; but they carried their ill-humour so far as to refuse to let me see and make some corrections in the MS. Life of Goldsmith, which had been compiled under my direction."—ED.

¹ Compare 'On the Sheep,' more particularly, in Goldsmith's own 'History of the Earth and Animated Nature;' an extract will be found further on. See also on the Spider, vol. ii. p. 369.—ED.

animal is a slave, which has few other desires but those which man is willing to grant it. Humble, patient, resigned, and attentive, it fills up the duties assigned; ready for labour, and content with subsistence.

But not only its native liberty, its very figure is changed by the arts and industry of man: what an immense variety in the ordinary race of dogs, or horses; what a difference between the large English mastiff, and the small Spanish lap-dog; yet the whole has been effected by the nature of the climate and food, seconded by the industry of man, in continuing the species without mixture.

As in external figure they bear evident marks of human cultivation, so is there also some difference in the internal structure of their bodies. The stomach of the domestic animal is not usually so large: for such receiving food at certain and expected intervals, and that but by little at a time, this intestine seems to contract to its contents, and fits the animal for the life it is obliged to lead.

Thus we, in some measure, see nature under a continual constraint in those creatures we have taught to live about us; but it is otherwise when we come to examine the savage tenants of the forest or the wilderness; there every species preserves its characteristic form, and is strongly imprest with the instincts and appetites of nature. The more remote from the tyranny of mankind, the greater seems their sagacity: the beavers, in those distant solitudes where men have rarely past, exert all the arts of architects and citizens; they build neater habitations than even the rational inhabitants of those countries can show, and obey a more regular discipline than ever man could boast; but as soon as man intrudes upon their society, their spirit of industry and wisdom ceases; they no longer exert their social arts, but become patient and dull, as if to fit them for a state of servitude.

But not only their industry, but their courage also is repressed by the vicinity of man. The lion of the deserts of Nubia, that has been only taught to measure his strength with weaker animals, and accustomed to conquer, is possessed of amazing courage; instead of avoiding man, as other animals are found to do, he attacks whole caravans crossing the desert, and, when overpowered, retires still

facing the enemy. But the lion of Morocco, which is a more populous country, seems to acknowledge a superiority, and is even scared away by the cries of women and children.

Wherever man approaches, the savage beasts retire, and it is thought, not without some share of reason, that many species of animals had once birth, which are now totally extinct. The elk, for instance, which we are certain was once a native of Europe, is now no longer, except in Canada. Those monstrous bones of the mahmout,¹ as the Siberians call an animal which must have been at least four times as big as the elephant, which are dug up in that country, and which by no means belong to the whale, as has been falsely imagined, may serve to convince us that there were once animals existing which have been totally extirpated. The histories of Aristotle and Pliny serve to confirm us in this opinion; for in them we find descriptions which have not their archetypes in the present state of nature.

It is in the forest therefore, and remote from man, that we must expect to find those varieties, instincts, and amazing instances of courage and cunning, which quadrupeds exert in a very high degree. Their various methods of procuring subsistence may well attract our admiration; and their peculiar conformation for the life in which they find greatest pleasure is not less surprising. The rapacious animal is in every respect formed for war; yet the various kinds make their incursions in very different ways. The lion and tiger pursue their prey by the view alone, and for this purpose they have a most piercing sight. Others hunt by scent, while some lie in wait and seize whatever comes near them, or they are able to overpower.

The teeth of carnivorous animals differ in every respect from those which feed upon vegetables. In the latter, they seem entirely designed for gathering and comminuting their simple food; but in the rapacious kinds, for holding and tearing their prey. In the one, the teeth serve as grindstones, in the other, as weapons of offence. In both, however, the surfaces of the grinding teeth are unequal, with cavities and risings, which fit each other when the jaws are brought into contact. These inequalities serve

¹ Mammoth.—ED.

the better to grind and comminute their food, but they grow smoother with age; which is the reason why old animals take a longer time to chew their food than those in the vigour of life.

The legs and feet of quadrupeds are admirably suited to the motion and exercises of each animal. In some they are made for strength only, and to support a vast unwieldy body, as in the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the sea-horse, whose feet in some measure resemble pillars. Deer, hares, and other creatures that are remarkable for swiftness, have theirs slender, yet nervous. The feet of some serve for swimming, as the otter and beaver; the toes of these animals are joined together with membranes like those of geese and ducks, which is a sufficient demonstration that they are designed to live in water as well as on land; though the toes of the fore-feet of the beaver are not thus united, because they use them as hands. The feet of some are made for walking and digging, of which the mole is a remarkable instance; and others for walking and flying, as the bat. The legs of some are weak, and of others stiff and strong, that they may traverse the ice with less danger. The common goat, whose natural habitation is on the rocks and mountains, has legs of this kind, and the hoof is hollow underneath, with sharp edges, so that when become domestic, it will walk as securely on the top of a house, as on level ground. Many are shod with rough and hard hoofs, of which some are whole, and others are cloven; some again have only a callous skin, and these are composed of toes which supply the place of hands, as in all of the monkey kind. Many have only short nails, for their more ready and safe running or walking; while others have sharp and strong talons, as the lion, and most ravenous beasts, to destroy their prey,

The heads of quadrupeds also differ greatly from each other; for in some they are square and large, suitable to their slow motion, food, and abode; in others, slender and sharp, the better to fit them for turning up the earth, of which a hog is an instance. Some quadrupeds have long necks, and not very strong, serving chiefly to carry their mouth to the ground, in order to feed; in others they are shorter, brawny, and strong, as in moles and hogs,

thereby the better to turn up its surface ; while in general the quadrupeds that feed upon grass are enabled to hold down their heads, by a strong tendonous ligament, that runs from the head to the middle of their back ; by the help of which the head, though heavy, may be held down a long while, without any labour, pain, or uneasiness to the muscles of the neck.

The stomach is generally proportioned to the quality of the animal's food : those who live upon flesh and such nourishing substances, have it small and glandular, affording such juices as are best adapted to digest and macerate its contents. On the contrary, ruminating animals, or such as chew the cud, who feed entirely upon vegetables, have four stomachs, all of which serve as so many laboratories to prepare and turn their simple food into proper nutriment. In Africa, however, where the plants afford greater nourishment than in our temperate climate, several animals which with us have four, are there found to have but two. But in all, the difference in the manner of living seems to arise from the internal conformation ; and each animal lives upon food more or less nourishing in proportion to the size of its intestines, which are to digest it.

In general, whatever be the food, nature seems finely to have fitted the creature for procuring it, though never without a proper exertion of its strength or industry. Large animals of the forest, such as the elephant and lion, want swiftness, and a distinguishing scent for catching their prey, but have strength to overcome it ; others, who want strength, such as the wolf and the fox, make it up by their cunning ; and those to whom nature has denied both strength and speed, as the hound and the jackall, follow by the smell, and at last overtake their prey by perseverance. Thus, each species seems only possessed of one talent in perfection, so that the power of destruction in one class may not be greater than the power to escape in another.

Few wild animals seek their prey in the day-time, but about night the whole forest echoes with a variety of different howlings. That of the lion resembles distant thunder ; the tiger and leopard's notes are something more shrill, but yet more hideous ; while the jackall, pursuing by his scent, barks somewhat like a dog, and hunts in a pack in the

same manner. Nor is it uncommon for the strongest animals to follow where they hear this cry begun ; and when the jackall has hunted down the prey, to come in and monopolize the spoil. It is this which has given rise to the report of that little animal's being the lion's provider ; but, in fact, the jackall hunts for himself alone, and the lion is an unwelcome intruder upon the fruits of his industry.

This is a common method with larger animals ; yet their most usual way is to hide and crouch near some path frequented by their prey, or some water where cattle come to drink, and with a bound seize them instantly. The lion is said to leap twenty feet at a spring, and, if we can credit Father Tachard, the tiger goes still farther. However, notwithstanding this surprising force, it would often happen that they might perish for want of food, had not nature endowed them with an amazing power of sustaining hunger for a long time ; for as their subsistence is precarious, their appetites are complying. When once they have seized their prey they devour it in the most voracious manner, often bones and all, and then retire to their retreats, continuing inactive till the calls of hunger again excite their courage and industry. But as all their methods of pursuit are counteracted by their prey with all the arts of evasion, in this manner they often continue to range without success, supporting a life of famine and fatigue for eight or ten days successively. Beasts of prey seldom devour each other, nor can any thing but the greatest degree of hunger induce them to it. But, in such extremities, and when hunger makes them less delicate, the weakest affords its antagonist a disagreeable repast. What they chiefly seek after is the deer, or the ox, those harmless creatures which seem made to embellish nature ; of which when caught they first suck the blood, and then devour the carcass. Between such there is cause of enmity. Yet there are antipathies among the rapacious kinds, which render them enemies to each other, even though no ways instigated to it by hunger. The elephant and the tiger, the dog and the wolf, are mortal foes, and never meet without certain death to the weaker side.

When at Siam, says Father Tachard, I had an opportu-

nity of seeing a combat between three elephants and a tiger. The place of engagement was in a sort of railed amphitheatre, and the elephants were defended by a kind of armour which covered their heads, and a part of their trunk; but as if this were not sufficient, the tiger was also restrained by cords from making the first onset. When one of the elephants approached, he began the combat by giving his enemy three terrible blows with his trunk on the back, which stunned the other so much, that he continued for some time as if insensible; but the instant he was let loose, he flew at the elephant, with a hideous howl, and attempted to seize him by the trunk; this the elephant artfully evaded by wrinkling in his trunk, and then receiving his antagonist upon his armour, he in the most dexterous manner flung him up into the air. This served entirely to intimidate the tiger, who durst no longer face him, but made many efforts to escape, now and then trying to fly up at the spectators; but the three elephants now beginning to press him, they struck him such terrible blows, that they would soon have despatched him, had not the signal been given for finishing the combat.¹

But to have a more distinct idea of the life of a beast of prey, let us turn to one among the number, the wolf, for instance, and view him in his native deserts. With the most insatiable appetite for animal food, nature seems to have granted him the most various means of satisfying it. Possessed of strength, agility, and cunning, he seems fitted for finding, overcoming, and devouring his prey; yet, for all this, the wolf often dies of hunger, for he is the declared enemy of man. Being thus proscribed, he is obliged to frequent the most solitary part of the forest, where his prey too often escapes him, either by swiftness or cunning, so that he is most frequently indebted to hazard alone for subsistence. He remains lurking whole days in those places where the lesser animals most frequently pass, till at last becoming desperate through want, and courageous through

¹ From his previous remark it seems that our author knew that Father Tachard was deemed a credulous and somewhat untrustworthy traveller. Some of the wonderful stories in the 'Animated Nature,' for which Goldsmith got laughed at, were from Father Tachard. Guy Tachard was a Jesuit missionary. He died in 1694.—ED.

necessity, he ventures forth to attack such animals as have taken refuge under the protection of man. He therefore falls in among the fold, destroys all he meets, kills merely from a pleasure in slaughter, and, if this succeed, he returns again, till being wounded, or frightened by dogs or men, he ventures out only by night, ranges the fields, and destroys whatever he has strength to conquer. He has been often seen, when those sallies have proved unsuccessful, to return back to the woods and pursue the wild animals; not so much with the hope of overtaking them himself, as in expectation of their falling a prey to some other of his own species, with whom he may come in to divide the spoil. In short, when driven to the last extremity, he attacks even man himself, and grown quite furious, encounters inevitable destruction.

Such are the beasts of the forest, which are formed for a life of hostility, and, as we see, possessed of various methods to seize, conquer, and destroy. Nor are such as are their destined prey less sagacious in their efforts to escape destruction. Some find protection in holes in which nature has directed them to bury themselves; others seek safety by their swiftness, and such as are possessed of neither of these advantages, generally herd together, and endeavour to repel invasion with united force. The very sheep, which seems the most defenceless animal of all, will yet make resistance; the females falling into the centre, and the males with their horns forming a ring round them. Some animals that feed upon fruits, which are to be found only at one time of the year, have the sagacity to provide against winter; thus the badger, the hedgehog, and mole, fill their holes with several sorts of plants, which enable them to lie concealed during the hard frosts of the winter, contented with their prison, which affords them safety. These holes are constructed with so much art, that the builders seem endowed with an instinct almost approaching reason. In general there are two apertures, one by which to escape, when an enemy is in possession of the other. The doublings of the hare, and the various tricks of the fox to escape the hounds, are not less surprising. Some animals have the power of raising such an intolerable stench, that no dogs will follow them: many creatures which herd together, place a sentinel upon the

watch, to give notice of an approaching enemy, and take this duty by turns. These are the efforts of instinct for safety, and they are in general sufficient to repel the hostilities of instinct only; but no arts the wretched animal can use are sufficient to repress the invasions of man. Wherever he has spread his dominion, terror seems to follow; there is then no longer society among the inferior tenants of the plain; all their cunning ceases; all their industry is at an end; the whole is then only subsistence, and human art, instead of improving brutal sagacity, only bounds, contracts, and constrains it.

The wild animal is subject to few alterations, 'till he comes under the dominion of man. In their native solitudes they live still in the same manner; they are not seen to wander from climate to climate; the forest where they have been bred seems to bound and satisfy their desires; they seldom leave it, and when they do, it is only because it can no longer afford security. Nor is it their fellow brutes, but man they in such cases seem to avoid. From the former their apprehensions are less, because their means of escape are greater. In their fellow brutes they have an enemy to whom their powers are equal; they can oppose fraud to their force, and swiftness to their sagacity; but what can be done against such an enemy as man, who finds them out though unseen, and though remote destroys them!

We have observed, that among animals of the same kind there is little variety, except what is produced by the art of man; but we would have this observation extend only to animals of the same climate. As in the human species many alterations arise from the heat or cold, and other peculiarities of the region they inhabit, so among brute animals the climate marks them with its influence, and in a few successions they entirely conform to the nature of their situation. In general it may be remarked, that the colder the country, the longer and warmer is the fur of each animal, to defend it from the inclemency of the season. Thus the fox and the wolf, which in temperate climates have but short hair, yet have it much longer in the frozen regions, near the north-pole. Those dogs which with us have long hair, when carried into the hot tropical climates, in a few years cast

their thick covering, and assume one more fitted to the place. The elephant and rhinoceros, which live in the hottest countries, have no hair at all; while the beaver and the ermine, which are found in greatest plenty in the cold regions, are remarkable for the warmth and the fineness of their furs. There is one exception to this general rule, in the quadrupeds of Syria, which though a hot country, are remarkable for the length and fineness of their hair; the Syrian cat, sheep, and other animals affording sufficient quantity to be manufactured into that stuff called camblet,¹ so common over all Europe.

The quantity of food in any country, or its nutriment adapted to each peculiar species, serves also to make a variety in the size of the respective animal. Thus the beasts which feed in the valley are much larger than those which glean a scanty subsistence on the mountains; such as live in those hot countries where the plants are much larger and more succulent than with us, are equally remarkable for their bulk. If Africa has been remarked to a proverb, by antiquity, for its monstrous serpents, it is no less remarkable for its lions, its elephants, and leopards also. Their dispositions, too, seem to partake of the rigours of the climate; and being bred in the extreme of heat or cold, they show a peculiar ferocity, that neither the force of man can conquer, nor his adulations allay.

The same physical causes which have rendered the men of those wretched climates barbarous and unsocial, seem to extend their influence even to brutes. For ever where the men are most savage, the brutes are most fierce; the reasoning powers on one hand being less, while the active powers on the other being greater, the forces on both sides seem almost levelled to an equality, and in those regions brutes and men seem to struggle for divided dominion. All the attempts which have hitherto been made to tame the savage animals brought home from the pole or the equator, have proved ineffectual; while young the lion, and even the leopard, are harmless and gentle; but they acquire all their natural ferocity with age; catch at the hand that feeds them, and as they grow up become more dangerous and

¹ Camblet, or Camelot, was originally made of camel's hair and silk.
—ED.

more cruel. A person who showed wild beasts about the country, some years ago, had confined a young mastiff and a wolf cub from Senegal, in the same room. While young they played together, and seemed much delighted with each other's company ; but as the wolf grew older, he began to acquire new fierceness, and they often had slight quarrels about their food, which was given them together. It always began upon the wolf's side, who, though there was much more than both he and the mastiff could possibly consume, yet still kept the mastiff away, and watched over the remainder. This ill-matched society therefore every day became more turbulent and bloody, till it ended in the death of the dog, whom the wolf caught at an unguarded moment, and tore in pieces.

Thus we find, that even among carnivorous animals, there are different dispositions, some generous and valiant, others cruel and cowardly. Some animals are rapacious merely to satisfy their hunger, but the tiger, hyæna, and the panther, destroy whatever they meet, slay without distinction, and are cruel without necessity.

It has been observed, that the extensive deserts of Africa, lying between the tropics, produce the largest and fiercest animals, yet in the same latitudes in America the animals are in no wise so terrible. It may, indeed, be remarked in general, that all the quadrupeds of that new world are less than those of the old ; even such as are carried from hence to breed there are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If with respect to size we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high, while the tapurette, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less ; nor is the bison, though really bulky, by any means large to appearance. Their beasts of prey also are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa, or Asia. They have no lions, nor, properly speaking, either leopard or tiger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. However, the

cougar,¹ the jaquar, and the jaqualette among them, are despicable in comparison of the tiger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tiger of Bengal has been known to measure twelve feet in length, without including the tail; while the cougar, or American tiger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals therefore in the southern parts of America are different from those in the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which being able to bear the rigours of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of Canada as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tiger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America.

But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, imported from Europe to southern America, in a few generations becomes much less, but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who affect to call themselves the masters of the creation.² Final causes are obvious, but as the great Bacon says, *Investigatio causarum finalium sterilis est, et veluti virgo Deo dedicata, nil parit*; such in fact produce no discoveries; it is for the efficient cause we should enquire; and yet such is the darkness of the subject, that we must be contented, in the present instance, only with the former. Upon anatomical inspection, the matrix of smaller creatures is evidently fitted to produce many at a time, while that of larger quadrupeds is adapted for the gesta-

¹ See 'Deserted Village,' line 355, and note.—ED.

² The reasons of this fecundity are not so easily assigned as the Creator's motives for this difference.—GOLDSMITH.

tion of one alone, or of two at the most. As large animals require proportional supplies from nature, Providence seems unwilling to give new life where it has denied the necessary means of subsisting.

In consequence of this pre-established order, the larger creatures, which bring forth but few at a time, seldom produce their species till they have acquired, or almost acquired, their full growth. On the other hand, those which bring forth many, engender before they have arrived at half their natural size. The horse and the bull come almost to their acme before reproduction; the hog and the rabbit scarce leave the teat before they become parents themselves. The large animals also go with young in proportion to their size. The mare continues eleven months with foal; the cow nine; the wolf five; and the bitch nine weeks. In all, however, the young are produced by the female without hæmorrhage, and mostly without pain, the intermediate litters being ever most fruitful.

Whatever be the natural disposition of animals at other times, they all acquire new courage and fierceness in defence of their young. Even the mildest, if wild, will then resist and threaten the invader; but such as have force, and subsist by rapine, are at such times terrible indeed. The lioness seems more hardy than even the lion himself; she attacks men and beasts indiscriminately, and when she has overcome, carries them reeking to her young, whom she accustoms betimes to slaughter. We are told by some travellers, but with what truth I will not take upon me to determine, that the hunters who find her cubs, and carry them off, have no other method to escape her pursuit but by dropping one at some distance from the den, which finding, she takes care to carry back, before she attempts to rescue the rest, and so the hunter escapes with a part.

The first aliment of all quadrupeds is milk, which is a liquor at once both nourishing and easily digested; this being in carnivorous animals in much less quantity than others, the female often carries home her prey alive, that its blood may supply the deficiencies of nature in herself.

But their care in the protection of their young is not greater than their sagacity in choosing such months for bringing forth as afford the greatest quantity of provision,

suitable to the age and appetite of each peculiar kind. In general they couple at such times as that the female shall bring forth in the mildest seasons, such as the latter end of spring, or the beginning of autumn. The wolf and the fox, for instance, couple in December, so that the time of gestation continuing five months, they may have their young in April. The mare, which goes eleven months, admits the horse in summer, and foals in the beginning of May. On the contrary, all those which lay up provisions for the winter, as the beaver and marmotte, couple in the latter end of autumn, so as to have their young about January, for which severe season they have already laid in the proper supplies. This provisional care in every species of quadrupeds, of bringing forth at the fittest seasons, may well excite human admiration; in man the business of procreation is not marked by seasons, but brutes seem to decline indeterminate copulation, as if conducted less by appetite than the future subsistence of their offspring.

Their choice of situations too may be remarked; for in most of the rapacious kinds, the female takes the utmost precautions to hide the place of her retreat from the male, who, when pressed with hunger, would be apt to devour her cubs. She seldom therefore strays far from the den, and never returns while the male is in view, nor visits him again till her young are out of danger, or capable of resistance. Such animals as are of tender constitutions take the utmost care to provide the warmest lodging for their young; those, on the contrary, that are hardy, and are found to subsist in northern climates, are not so cautious in this particular. The rapacious kinds bring forth in the thickest woods; the ruminant, with the various species of lesser creatures, choose some hiding place in the neighbourhood of man; some choose the hollow of a tree, and all the amphibious kinds bring up their young by the water, and accustom them betimes to either element. There are, however, some animals which leave their brood to chance alone, and their own early instinct for their preservation; I mean the oviparous kinds, or those which bring forth eggs, such as the tortoise, the lizard, and the crocodile. These take no farther care of their young than by burying their eggs in the sand, and the heat of the sun alone

brings them to perfection. As soon as hatched, without any other guide than instinct, they immediately make to the water, though not without having their numbers diminished in their passage by such birds as make them their peculiar food.

All the kinds of oviparous animals are covered with shells or scales; those of the viviparous, or such as bring forth their young alive, with hides, and hair. The oviparous are much more fruitful; a tortoise or a crocodile laying not less than a hundred eggs at a time. These, as being more imperfectly formed than animals of the viviparous kind, sooner arrive at a state of maturity; for in general it may be observed, that the more imperfect each animal is, the sooner it arrives at its greatest state of perfection. The lizard is capable of providing for itself as soon as hatched; the otter swims in quest of food at one day old; the dog takes longer time; the horse and the lion are more slow in their advances; while man, the most perfect work of nature, labours under the longest imbecility.

But while I divide animals into viviparous and oviparous, perhaps it may be observed, that a distinction is made where nature has made none, and that all creatures are produced in the same manner, equally proceeding from eggs. The generation of animals has excited curiosity in all ages, and the philosophers of every age have undertaken to explain the difficulty. Hippocrates has supposed fecundity to proceed from the mixture of the seminal liquor of both sexes, each of which equally contributes to the formation of the incipient animal. Aristotle, on the other hand, would have the seminal liquor in the male alone to contribute to this grand effect, while the female only supplied the proper nourishment for its support. Such were the opinions of these two great men, and they continued to be adopted by physicians or schoolmen for a long succession of ages, with blind veneration, till Steno and Hervey,¹ guided by anatomical inspection, perceived in every viviparous animal two glandular bodies near the womb, resem-

¹ "Hervey" here should perhaps be Harvey, for William Harvey, the discoverer of the circulation of the blood (1578-1657). Harvey wrote a work upon 'Generation.' Nicholaus Steno, or Stenonius, was a physician and anatomist of Denmark: 1631-1687.—ED.

bling that cluster of small eggs which is found in fowls; and from the analogy between both, they gave these also the name of ovaria. However, as they seemed detached from the womb, it was objected, at first, that such could contribute no way to the formation of the foetus; but upon more minute inspection, Fallopius, the great anatomist,¹ perceived two tubular vessels, depending from the womb, which, like the horns of a snail, had a power of erecting themselves, embracing the ovaria, and receiving the eggs in order to be fecundated by the seminal liquor. This discovery soon altered the opinion of philosophers; and as the followers of Aristotle ascribed the rudiments of the foetus to the male, the followers of Hervey gave it entirely to the female. This last opinion, therefore, was established in the schools a long time without much controversy, till Leuwenhoek² discovered that the seminal liquor in the male had numberless living creatures, each of which might be considered as a miniature of the future animal. The business of generation was now, therefore, given back to the male a second time, though not without long controversy, and some abuse. Succeeding speculators, willing to compound the matter, were of opinion that the seminal animal might enter the egg predisposed for its reception; and thus both sexes might conspire in the formation. The subject offered infinite scope for conjecture. Mr. Buffon loved to speculate, and he was unwilling to let slip so fair an opportunity of speculation. He therefore broached a new theory; he found by microscopical inspection, that the seminal liquor, both of males and females, equally abounded with the moving beings, first taken notice of by Leuwenhoek. These he takes not to be real animals, but living substances, which have the property of making a part in all organized bodies, without being organized themselves. All animals, he continues to observe, as well as vegetables, are composed of these living unorganized substances, a part of which are taken up for the animal's own support and growth, and the superfluity thrown off in the seminal liquor of both sexes, for the reproduction of other animals of the same species.

This hypothesis, as well as all the rest, is embarrassed

¹ G. Fallopius, of Italy: b. 1523, d. 1563.—ED.

² Anthony Leuwenhoek, Dutch philosopher: 1632-1723.—ED.

with unsurmountable objections, and only serves to show that too minute a pursuit of nature leads to uncertainty ; in such cases, every last opinion serves to overturn the preceding, while itself only waits to be overturned by some succeeding speculation more pleasing, because more new. Happily for mankind, the most intricate enquiries are generally the most useless. Modest nature has concealed her secret operations from rash presumption ; it may suffice man to be certain, that she always acts with uniformity and success. Though we cannot discover how animals are generated, we know that every species is still transmitted down without mixture, and that the same characteristic marks which distinguished them in the times of Aristotle and Pliny, divide them to this day. Creatures of different kinds may be brought to produce between them, indeed, an animal partaking something of each, yet different from either, but here the confusion ends ; for this new being, this monster of nature, is incapable of continuing the breed, and is marked with perpetual sterility. Nor does this arise from the figure, for there is more difference between the mastiff and lap-dog, with respect to external shape, than between the horse and the ass ; yet the animal produced between the two former is prolific, while the mule, which is begotten by the latter, continues unalterably barren.

But though nature has provided that every species of animals should be thus kept distinct, yet we have many reasons to believe, as has been observed before, that she has not been so solicitous for the preservation of them all. We have already taken notice of the mahmut,¹ which is computed to have been at least five times as big as the elephant, and if so, might consequently require the produce of an immense tract for his subsistence. How so huge a body, therefore, could be supported upon earth, or if the bones once belonged to an inhabitant of the deep, how they came buried at such an immense distance as they are found from the sea, are questions that ignorance may ask, but sagacity never resolve ; the use, and not the cause of things, is all allowed us here. 'Tis sufficient for us that every thing we see is good, and that all those good things

¹ Mammoth. It was noticed previously at p. 79.—ED.

have been granted for our enjoyment. A mind willing to employ itself in vain conjectures can never want subjects upon which to expatiate; thus for instance, whether brutes have souls? whether they reason? whether they have memory? or are only mere machines? these are topics that may employ the speculative, but that can never recompence the enquiry. They are questions concerning which we may form doubts, and ask questions, but can never have them resolved, till brutes themselves find language to inform us, and further enlighten our philosophy.

INTRODUCTION.¹

OF BIRDS IN GENERAL.

AFTER quadrupeds, birds hold the foremost rank in nature. Though they are incapable of the same docility with terrestrial animals, and are less imitative of human perfections, yet they far surpass fishes and insects, both in the structure of their bodies and their sagacity. As in mechanics the most curious machines are generally the most complicated, so it is in anatomy: the body of man presents the greatest variety upon dissection; quadrupeds, less perfectly formed, discover it in their simplicity of conformation; the mechanism of birds is still less complex; fishes have yet fewer organs than they; while insects, more imperfectly than all, seem to unite the boundaries between animal and vegetable nature. Of man, the most perfect animal, there are but two or three species; of quadrupeds, the kinds are very numerous; in birds they are still greater; and in insects most of all.

Quadrupeds have some distant resemblance, in their internal structure, with man; but that of birds is entirely dissimilar. This animal seems wholly formed to inhabit the empty regions of air, in order that no part of nature might be left untenanted. Their wings, which are their principal instruments of flight, are formed for this purpose

¹ Introduction to vol. ii. of Brookes's 'Natural History.'—ED.

with the greatest exactness, and placed at that part of their body which best serves to poise the whole, and support it, in a fluid that at first seems so much lighter than itself. The quills are at once stiff and hollow, which gives them the advantage of strength and lightness; the webs are broad on one side and more narrow on the other, both which contribute to the progressive motion of the bird, and the closeness of the wing. Thus each feather takes up a large surface but with inconsiderable gravity, so that when the wing is expanded, the animal becomes specifically lighter than air. The smaller feathers with which it is clothed, are disposed one over another in the exactest order, so as to lie closer in proportion to the rapidity of the flight. That part of them which is next the skin is furnished with a soft and warm down, and that next the air with a web on each side of the shaft, each single beard of which is itself a feather. All birds that fly much, have their wings placed in the most proper part to balance their bodies in the air; those which have as much occasion for swimming as flying have their wings placed more forward, and those that are obliged to seek their food by diving, have their legs set more backward, and their wings still more forward than either of the preceding.

But as this lightness of the feathers might frequently be impeded by a shower of rain, or any other accidental moisture, by which means the bird might become an easy prey to every invader, nature has provided an expedient whereby their feathers are as impenetrable to the water, as by their structure they are to the air. All birds in general have a receptacle replenished with oil, something in the shape of a teat, and situated at the extremity of their bodies. This teat has several orifices, and when the bird perceives its feathers to be dry, or expects the approach of rain, it squeezes this teat with the bill, and strains from thence a part of the contained oil; after which, having drawn its bill successively over the greatest part of its feathers, they thus acquire a new lustre, and become impenetrable to the heaviest rains, for the water rolls off in large drops. Such poultry, however, as live for the most part under cover, are not furnished with so large a stock of this fluid as those birds that reside in the open air.

The feathers of a hen, for instance, are pervious to every shower; whereas, on the contrary, swans, geese, ducks, and all such as nature has directed to live upon the water, have their feathers dressed with oil from the very first day of their leaving the shell. Thus their stock of this fluid is equal to their necessity of its consumption. Their very flesh contracts a flavour from it, which renders it in some so very rancid as to be utterly unfit for food; however, though it injures the flesh, it improves the feathers for all the domestic purposes to which they are generally converted.

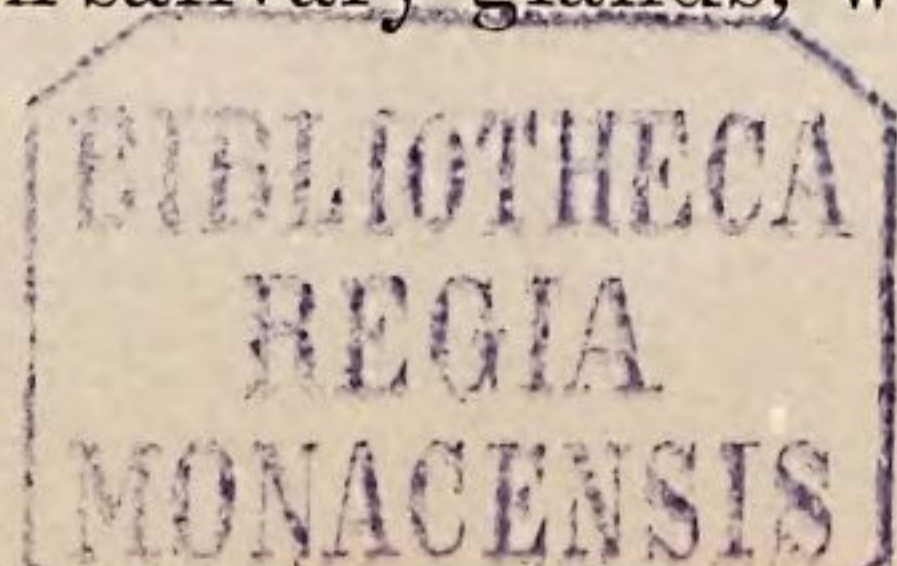
Every part of their mechanism, as was before observed, seems adapted for the improvement of their flight; their bones are extremely light and thin, and their muscles feeble, except the large pectoral muscle, by means of which they move their wings with such ease and rapidity. This very strong muscle fills up all that space on each side of the breast bone, which, though small in quadrupeds, is in these large, broad, and externally of a very great surface; by means of this a bird can move its wings with a degree of strength, which, when compared with the animal's size, is almost incredible. No machines that human art can contrive are capable of giving such force to so light an apparatus; and for this reason alone the art of flying must remain one of those perfections which man may desire but can never attain; since, as he increases the force of his machine he must increase its weight also. The tail of birds serves to counterbalance the head and neck, guides their flight instead of a rudder, and greatly assists them either in their ascent, or when descending.

In these particulars birds differ from quadrupeds; yet of the former as well as the latter some live upon the flesh of animals, others upon vegetables, some wholly upon land, and others upon water. This diversity arises in some measure from the peculiar formation of each kind, and not unfrequently from the climate and soil. In all birds of the eagle, or rapacious kind, which live upon flesh, the beak, talons, and stomach are peculiarly formed. The *œsophagus*, or gullet, in such is found replete with glandulous bodies, which serve to dilute and macerate the prey as it passes into the stomach, which is always very large in pro-

portion to the size of the bird, and generally wrapped round with fat, in order to increase its warmth and powers of digestion. The beaks of these not only serve them as instruments of subsistence, but also as weapons of defence, being crooked at the end, and sometimes serrated at the edges. The talons are large and extremely tenacious, the muscles which contract the claw being infinitely stronger than those which expand it. Thus furnished for war, all of this kind spread terror wherever they approach. That variety of music which but a moment before enlivened the grove, at their appearance instantly ceases. All is silent, every order of lesser birds seek for safety either in flight or obscurity, and some are even found to seek protection from man, in order to avoid their less merciful pursuers. It succeeds, however, happily, that each order of carnivorous birds seeks for such as are nearly of their own size. The sparrow-hawk pursues the thrush, and the falcon the bustard: nature has provided that each species shall make war only on such as are furnished with the adequate means of escape; the smaller birds avoid their pursuers by the extreme agility rather than the swiftness of their flight, and for their own peculiar enemy they are more than a match, the sparrow-hawk seldom seizing any except by surprise.

But all their arts of escape would be vain against the extreme rapidity of the falcon, or the eagle, and they find safety only from their minuteness, as these are found to fly only at greater game. Their usual manner of taking their prey is by mounting into the air, and, observing where it lies, to dart downward upon it with amazing swiftness, and strike it dead with the blow. Nature, however, has provided the bird they pursue with sufficient instinct to endeavour still to be uppermost, so that both generally in this contest are found to mount above the view, and the bird which is endowed with the strongest wing and the most rapid flight comes off with conquest or safety.

Granivorous birds, or such as live upon fruits, corn, and other vegetables, have their intestines differently formed from those of the rapacious kind. Their gullet dilates just above the breast-bone, and forms itself into a pouch, or bag, called the crop. This is replete with salivary glands, which



serve to moisten and soften the grain and other food which it contains. These glands are very numerous, with longitudinal openings, which send forth a whitish and viscous substance. After the dry food of the bird has been macerated in the crop for a convenient time, it then passes into the abdomen, where, instead of a soft moist stomach, as in the rapacious kinds, the food is ground between two pair of muscles, commonly called the gizzard, covered on the inside with a stony ridgy coat, and almost cartilaginous. These, rubbing against each other, are capable of bruising and comminuting the hardest substances, their action being often compared to those of the grinding teeth in man and other animals. Thus the organs of digestion in quadrupeds are in a manner reversed in birds. Beasts first grind theirs with their teeth, and it passes into the stomach, where it is macerated and softened; on the contrary, birds of this sort first macerate it in the crop, and then it is ground and comminuted in the stomach. They are also careful to pick up sand and gravel, and other hard substances, not in order to grind the food, as is commonly imagined, in the stomach, but to prevent the too violent action of the opposite muscles against each other.

Another variety in birds proceeds from the shape of their bills and toes, which are always adapted to the element on which they chiefly reside. Swans, geese, ducks, coots, and such other fowls as delight in the water, have their bills, necks, feet, and feathers wonderfully adapted to that kind of life they are to lead. The bill in some is of an extraordinary length, to enable them to search for their peculiar food, which is found only at the bottom of pools, marshes, and muddy places; thus in woodcocks and snipes, which by some are supposed to seek for worms in moorish grounds, but others, with more likelihood, affirm their food to be a fat unctuous substance which they suck out of the earth. The bills of curlews, and many other sea-fowls, are very long, in order to enable them to hunt for worms on the sea-shore, and to seek after small fish and their spawn. But the most common form of the bill in aquatic fowls is the broad spoon-bill, as in ducks, geese, and swans, the mechanism of which is at once adapted to contain and take up a greater quantity of water, which is always swallowed

with their food, and to skim the surfaces of standing weeds, in pools, which is generally the food they most delight in. Nor should it be forgotten, that, in all these, there are nerves which run to the ends of their bills, somewhat like those which in man terminate at the ends of his fingers, and which guide and improve his sense of feeling.

Their legs and feet also are not less adapted to their peculiar way of living. Some have the leg very long, to enable them to wade in the water, and they are always bare of feathers a good way above the knee, the toes being separated so as the better to enable them to sink in the mud; but such as seek their food by swimming, have short legs and flat feet with webs between each toe, which in swimming they extend as fishes do their fins, and thus impel the water one way, to advance themselves in the opposite direction. Their necks also are generally long, so as to reach the bottom, and shovel up gravel and other substances which they swallow with their food.

The variety of methods which nature has taken to furnish the globe with creatures perfectly formed to indulge all their peculiar appetites, deserves our wonder; but wondering is not the way to grow wise. We shall find the generality of birds, though so well fitted for changing place with rapidity and ease, for the most part contented with the places where they were bred, and by no means exerting their desire in proportion to their endowments. The rook, if undisturbed, would never leave its native wood, the blackbird still frequents its accustomed hedge, and if ever they change, it is only from motives of famine or of fear. There are some sorts, however, called birds of passage, which remove to warmer or colder climates, as the air or their peculiar nourishment invites them. Thus the starling in Sweden, at the approach of winter, finding subsistence no longer in that kingdom, descends every year into Germany; and the hen chaffinches of the same country are seen every year to fly through Holland, in large flocks, to pass their winter in a milder climate. Others, with a more daring flight, traverse the ocean, and undertake voyages that might intimidate even human perseverance. Thus quails in the spring leave the burning heat of Africa for the milder sun of Europe, and when they have passed

the summer with us, steer their flight back to enjoy in Egypt the temperate air which they can no longer find with us. They often fly in such numbers, that to mariners at sea they appear to cover the skies like a cloud, and sometimes, wearied by the length of their flight, drop down upon deck, an easy prey to the spectators.

From some accounts published in the Philosophical Transactions, it would seem that the swallows do not migrate in the same manner, but continue torpid all the winter; but I think the testimonies in favour of their migration are more cogent than those against it. All those who have sailed to the tropical climates, are convinced, by every day's experience, that they are seen flying in large flocks, in order to enjoy near the equator a warmer air. But not to enter into a discussion of little importance, wild ducks and cranes, at the approach of winter, generally go in search of milder climates, and assemble together for that purpose at a certain time of the year. Nor does this seem to be the deliberation of a day; they sometimes assemble and part different ways, in order to meet a second time; however, at length, as if the migration were unanimously resolved upon, they rise all at once and decamp in a body. It is not unpleasing to observe the order of their flight. They generally range themselves into one large column, or sometimes forming two columns, joining in an angle like the letter V, while the fowl which makes the point seems to cleave the air to facilitate the passage of those which are to follow. But it continues this laborious employment only for a certain time; after which, falling back into the rear, another takes the place. The prodigious length of their passage is surprising, and how they support themselves in the flight; but the regularity of their motions is not less admirable, and that spirit of society with which they seem obedient to laws for the general welfare. Both young and old are always found at the place of rendezvous, nor are they ever at a loss to take the direct road to their destined stations.

Thus there are some birds which may properly be called the inhabitants of every part of the earth; but in general every climate has birds peculiar to itself alone. The feathered inhabitants of the temperate zone chiefly excel in

the music of their notes ; those of the torrid zone in the bright and vivid colours of their plumage ; the frigid zone, on the other hand, where the seas abound with fish, are stocked with fowls of the aquatic kind, in much greater variety than are to be found in our parts of Europe.

In general, every bird resorts to those climates where its food is found in plenty, and always takes care to hatch its young at those places, and in those seasons, where provisions are in the greatest abundance. The large birds, and those of the aquatic kind, choose places as remote as possible from man, as their food is different from that which is cultivated by human industry ; some birds, which have only the serpent to fear, build their nests in such a manner as to have them depending at the end of a small bough, and the entrance from below ; but the little birds, which live upon fruits and corn, are found in the greatest plenty in the most populous countries, and are too often unwelcome intruders upon the fruits of human labours. In making their nests, therefore, the little birds use every art to conceal them from man, while the great birds use every precaution to render theirs inaccessible to wild beasts, or vermin. The unerring instinct which guides every species in contriving the most proper habitation for hatching their young demands our observation. In hot tropical climates nests of the same kind are made with less art, and of less warm materials, than in the temperate zone, for the sun in some measure assists the business of incubation. In general, however, they build them with great art, and line them with such substances as keep or communicate warmth to their eggs. Nothing can exceed their patience while hatching ; neither the calls of hunger, nor the near approach of danger could drive them from the nest ; and though they have been found fat upon beginning to sit, yet before the incubation is over, the female is usually wasted to a skeleton. The male ravens and crows, while the hens are sitting, take care to provide them with food ; while other birds, such as pigeons and sparrows, take their turns, the male relieving the female at proper intervals. Sometimes, however, the eggs acquire a degree of heat too great for the purposes of hatching ; in such cases, the hen leaves them to cool a little, and then returns with

her usual perseverance and pleasure. When the young brood comes forth, nothing can exceed the industry and the seeming pride of the parents; the most timid becomes courageous in their defence; and provides them with food proper for their age or kind. Birds of the rapacious kind become at this season more than ordinarily ravenous, and those of the granivorous sorts discontinue their singing, entirely taken up in procuring subsistence for their young.

Of all birds the ostrich is the greatest, and the American humming bird the least. In these the gradations of nature are strongly marked, for the ostrich in some respects approaches the nature of that class of animals immediately placed above him, namely quadrupeds, being covered with hair, and incapable of flying; while the humming bird, on the other hand, approaches that of insects. These extremities of the species, however, are rather objects of human curiosity than use; it is the middle orders of birds which man has taken care to propagate and maintain; these largely administer to his necessities and pleasure, and some birds are even capable of attachment to the person that feeds them. How far they may be instructed by long assiduity is obvious from a late instance of a canary bird which was shown in London, and which had been taught to pick up the letters of the alphabet at the word of command. Upon the whole, however, they are inferior to quadrupeds in their sagacity; they are possessed of fewer of those powers which look like reason, and seem, in all their actions, rather impelled by instinct than guided by choice.

INTRODUCTION ¹

TO THE

HISTORY OF FISHES.

THE productions of nature, as they become less perfect, grow more numerous. When we consider what numberless

¹ Introduction to vol. iii. of Brookes's 'Natural History.'—ED.

sorts have hitherto escaped human curiosity, what a variety of fishes are already known, and the amazing fecundity of which they are possessed, we are almost induced to wonder how the ocean finds room for its inhabitants. A single fish is capable of producing eight or ten millions of its kind in a season; but nature has happily obviated this hurtful increase, by making the subsistence of one species depend on the destruction of another. The same enmities that subsist among land animals prevail with equal fury in the waters, and with this aggravation, that by land the rapacious kinds seldom devour each other, but in the ocean it seems an universal warfare of each against each. The large devour the small even of their own species, and these, in their turn, become the tyrants of such as they are able to destroy.

Fishes in general may be divided into those that breathe through lungs, and have red blood circulating through their veins; and those that respire through the gills, and whose circulating juices are limpid and colourless. The first sort, which comprehends all of the cetaceous or whale kind, are possessed of a greater degree of heat than the element they inhabit, are frequently obliged to come to the surface of the water to respire fresh air, and, though they are properly inhabitants of the ocean, yet are capable of being suffocated in it. They use coition, bring forth their young alive, nourish them with their milk, and resemble quadrupeds as to their internal conformation. The latter sort, on the contrary, are as cold as the element in which they live; they breathe only in the water; they produce by spawn, which is impregnated by the male; and are for the most part covered with scales. Between these there is yet an intermediate kind, which is called the cartilaginous. These breathe through the gills like the latter, and bring forth their young alive like the former. Instead of bones, their muscles are supported only by cartilages, or gristles, and from this conformation they continue to grow larger as they grow older; for, different from every other animal, their bones never acquire such a certain degree of hardness as to hinder their future growth.

The number of the cetaceous and cartilaginous kind, however, is but small when compared to the other kind

already described, in which are to be found a greater quantity of small bones, which serve to strengthen and support the muscles. The bones of a single carp, for instance, amount to four thousand three hundred and eighty-six. These are the kinds generally to be found in fresh water; these have been most frequently subject to human inspection, and from them our descriptions are most usually taken.

The shape of most fish is much alike, sharp at either end, and swelling in the middle, by which they are thus able to traverse the fluid they inhabit with greater ease. That peculiar shape which nature has granted most fishes we endeavour to imitate in such vessels as are designed to sail with the greatest swiftness; however, the progress of a machine moved forward in the water by human contrivance is nothing to the rapidity of an animal destined to reside there. The shark overtakes a ship in full sail with ease, plays round it, and abandons it at pleasure. The tail of all fish is extremely flexible, and furnished with muscles that take up near a third part of the whole body. In this lies their greatest strength, and by bending it to the right or left they repel the water behind, and advance with the desired swiftness. The motion of this is in some measure assisted by the fins, but their chief use is to poise the body, and at will to stop its motion. This is proved by experience; for when the fins are cut off, the fish reels to and fro, no longer able to keep its natural posture. These therefore only keep the fish steady; when it would turn to the right it moves the fins on the left side, when to the left it plays those on the right; the tail, however, is the grand instrument of progressive motion.

As all animals that live upon earth, or in the air, are furnished with a proper covering to keep off external injury, so all that live in the water are covered with a slimy glutinous matter, that, like a sheath, defends their bodies from the immediate contact of the surrounding fluid. Beneath this is generally found a coat consisting of strong scales, and under that, before we come to the muscular parts of the body, an oily substance, which supplies the requisite warmth and vigour.

When we examine a fish's scale through a microscope, it

is found to consist of a number of concentric circles, one within the other, in some measure resembling those which appear upon the transverse section of a tree, and, in fact, offering the same information. For, as in trees we can tell their age by the number of their circles, so in fishes we can tell their's by the number of circles in every scale, reckoning one ring for every year of the animal's existence. Mr. Buffon, by this method, found a carp, whose scales he examined, to be not less than a hundred years old; a thing almost incredible, had we not several accounts in other authors which tend to confirm its veracity.

That fish are extremely long-lived, appears from the nature of the element in which they breathe; in this they are not subject to those sudden changes which terrestrial animals hourly experience; their's is an uniform existence, their movements without effort, and their life without labour; so that all their dangers and inconveniences arise not from the infirmities of nature, but each other's rapacity.

But though they are formed entirely for living in the water, yet still they are unable to subsist without air. If a pond, in which they are usually kept, be covered over with ice, a part of it must be broken to let in fresh air, otherwise the fish would die. All water containing a certain quantity of air, fish have an admirable contrivance in their gills, of separating that from their native element. The air thus inspired, probably assists in circulating their fluids, as with other animals; but there is one advantage which it manifestly grants them, namely, that of sinking or rising in the water, as pleasure or necessity incites; when they are inclined to rise, they dilate an air bladder, with which nature has furnished them, and thus increasing their bulk, without adding to their weight, they become lighter than the surrounding fluid. On the contrary, when this air-bladder is contracted, their body contracts in proportion, and they sink. That this is the true use of the air-bladder, and that it is not, as some have supposed, only a reservoir of air, for the fish to breathe from while it continues under water, has been shown by experiments; thus we see that fish breathe our atmosphere: but, what will appear still more extraordinary, they have been kept alive and fattened, after having

been taken out of the water. Carp, when hung up in a cool cellar, in a small net, and covered with wet moss, their heads however being at liberty, may be fed and fattened with white bread steeped in milk; an experiment easily tried, and which has often been practised with success in Holland, as well as at home.

The eyes of fish are generally flat, which seems most suitable to the element in which they live. Their vision, however, is probably very indistinct; at least it appears so from the experiments I have been able to make upon their eyes, by fixing them in the apparatus of a camera obscura. They seem, likewise, to have but an obscure perception of sounds, and probably they receive this sensation, by the tremors of the element in which they live, operating rather upon their whole system, than by any mechanism adapted for that purpose. Their senses, therefore, seem no way exquisite, and their pleasures are almost entirely confined to the satisfaction they find in appeasing their hunger. It is this appetite alone which impels them to encounter every danger; their rapacity seems insatiable; even when taken out of the water, and expiring, they greedily swallow the very bait by which they were allured to their destruction.

As they are thus extremely voracious, nature seems to have supplied them with proper means for satisfying their appetite to the utmost extent of indulgence. They are all furnished with teeth, or some other contrivance which answers the same purpose. The maw is in general placed next the mouth, and though possessed of no sensible heat, yet is endued with a surprising faculty of digestion. Those of the voracious kind swallow not only others like themselves, but even prawns, crabs, and lobsters, shells and all, without experiencing any manner of inconvenience. This amazing faculty in their cold maw, serves evidently to prove, that heat is not the cause of digestion in the stomach of man, or other animals; the cause of that is perhaps inextricable, the operations of nature are past finding out, and doubts, instead of knowledge, rise upon every enquiry.

As fishes are thus formed for seizing and devouring each other, and as they are pressed by unceasing hunger, we may easily imagine that they lead a life of continued hostility, of violence, and evasion. It is natural to suppose

that the smaller fry stand no chance in this unequal combat ; their usual method of escaping, therefore, is by swimming into those shallows where the great ones are afraid or unable to pursue. Here they become invaders in turn, and live upon the spawn of larger fishes, which they find floating upon the surface of the water. The muscle, the oyster, and the scallop, lie in ambush at the bottom, with their shells open, and whatever animal inadvertently approaches into contact, they at once close their shells, and it becomes an easy prey. The flat fish, in general, watch on the mud, till the females of other kinds deposit their spawn in holes at the bottom, and upon their retiring, come forth to feast upon the spoil.

Nor is their pursuit, like that of terrestrial animals, confined to a single region, or to one effort ; shoals of one species follow those of another, through vast tracts of the ocean, from the vicinity of the pole even down to the equator. Thus the cod, from the banks of Newfoundland, pursues the whiting, which flies before it even to the southern shores of Spain. Such a pursuit as this may probably be the cause of the annual return of herrings and pilchards to our own coasts, where they come in an abundance that to some may appear incredible ; nothing being more common on the coasts of Cornwall, than to take five or six thousand hogsheads of pilchards at one single inclosure. This return of fish to the British coasts, is, however, of no very long continuance, for about a hundred and fifty years ago, the herring shoals were found along the northern coasts of Germany ; but those they have since forsaken, and in those places where the Germans once caught them in immense quantities, there are at present, without any visible reason, none to be found.

Thus we find another analogy between these and terrestrial animals. As in birds, so some sorts of these may be called fish of passage, and others indigenous. The herring first has its station towards the north of Scotland, from whence they make their way regularly every year, and at length arrive in the British Channel. Their voyage is performed with the utmost regularity. The time of their departure is fixed from the month of June to August, and they assemble always together, before they set out. There

are never any stragglers from the general body, for when they have past any place, there are none left remaining. It would be vain to assign the cause of these migrations. Whether it proceeds from the fear of pursuers, or from a desire of propagating their kind in greater security; whether they find pleasure in the change, or whether this long voyage is undertaken in quest of food, is a subject that might supply much conjecture, and little satisfaction. Certain it is, their numbers are astonishing; they satisfy, in their passage, the rapacity of all the voracious kinds, and when they arrive at their appointed stations, they there fall to the share of man, and make the food of the poor, for a certain season, throughout all Europe.

But this consumption, how great soever, only serves to counterbalance their surprising fecundity, which would, otherwise, overstock the element assigned them for their support. The number of eggs contained in the roe of a single cod, and computed by Leuwenhoek, amounted to nine millions three hundred and forty-four thousand; which, if permitted in every individual to come to maturity, would rather obstruct than replenish nature. But two wise purposes are answered by this amazing increase; it preserves the species whatever may happen, and serves to furnish the surviving fish with a sustenance adapted to their conformation.

They seem all, except the cetaceous kind, entirely divested of those parental pleasures and solitudes which so strongly mark the characters and conduct of the more perfect terrestrial animals. They do not use coition; for though the male sometimes seems to join bellies with the female, yet as he is unfurnished with the instruments of generation, his only end by such an action is to emit his impregnating fluid upon the eggs, which at that time fall from her. His attachment seems rather to the eggs, than the female; he pursues them often, as they float down along the stream, and carefully impregnates them one after the other. Sometimes the females dig holes in the bottoms of rivers and ponds, and there deposit their spawn, which are impregnated by the male as before.

All fish have a peculiar season to deposit their spawn. They in general choose the hottest months in summer, and

prefer such waters as are somewhat tepified by the rays of the sun. They then leave the deepest parts of the ocean, which are always most cold, approach the coasts, or swim up the rivers of fresh water, which are warm by being shallow. When they have deposited their burthens, they then return to their old stations, and leave their spawn, when come to maturity, to shift for themselves. These at first escape by their minuteness and agility. They rise and sink much sooner than grown fish, and can swim in much shallower water. But with all these advantages, scarce one in a thousand survives the various dangers that surround it; the very male and female that have given it life, are equally dangerous and formidable with the rest, for every fish is the declared enemy of all it is able to devour.

Some kinds of fishes are found to contain the parts of both sexes in one individual; thus there have been discovered hermaphrodite carps, breams, and roaches; but there is a kind of fish, not yet taken notice of, which, whether male or female, has the parts of generation double. These are the crustaceous kinds, such as lobsters and crabs, which differ from testaceous, or shell-fish, in this, that the crust, or coat, with which they are covered, may be bent inwards, or otherwise bruised, without breaking. Thus do these animals seem different from all other; for as we have our muscles supported by bones on the inside, these, on the contrary, have theirs without. As they are not designed for swimming, however, they have no air bladders, as other fish, but creep along the bottom, and devour whatever they seize, not excepting each other. They regularly once a-year, and about the beginning of May, cast their old shell, and nature supplies them with a new one. Some days before this necessary change, the animal ceases to take its usual food. Just before casting its shell it rubs its legs against each other, and uses other violent motions of the body. It then swells itself in an unusual manner, and by this the shell begins to divide at its junctures, between the body and the tail. After this, by the same operation, it disengages itself of every part, one after the other, each part of the joints bursting longitudinally till the animal is quite at liberty. This operation, however, is so violent and pain-

ful, that many of them die under it; those which survive are feeble, and their naked muscles soft to the touch, being covered with a thin membrane, but in less than two days this membrane hardens in a surprising manner, and a new shell, as impenetrable as the former, supplies the place of that laid aside.

Such is the life of these animals in their own element; but with respect to the use they are of to man, their flesh serves him for aliment, their fat for oil, their skins for different purposes; of their sounds we make isinglass, and the stony concretions which are found in their bodies were once thought to conduce to his health in medicine. Of fresh-water fish, those that have been fed in swift and rapid rivers are reckoned most wholesome; those which feed in ponds, or muddy stagnated lakes, are generally worst, as their flesh contracts a flavour from the place where they are bred. Luxury, however, has gone vast lengths in improving the flavour and fat of fish by castration; but it would ill become one who lays claim to humanity, to instruct gluttony in this vile art of torturing animals: the philosopher should ever stop when his labours begin to open new avenues to sensuality.

Those who have attempted accuracy in classing the productions of nature, have only embarrassed their works by their endeavours to arrange them methodically. To what order of beings the serpent, for instance, may be referred, whether to the fishes, the lizards, or the insects, is not yet settled among naturalists. The subject of their arrangement, however, is of no great importance, it being sufficient for the purposes of utility and information if they are accurately described. Like fishes, they may be divided into viviparous and oviparous; of the former are all of the viper kinds, of the latter those of the common snake. The former, in our own country, contain a poison lodged under each fang of the upper jaw; the latter are no way venomous. With us they grow to no great length; but in the warm latitudes of America they are sometimes seen from twelve to twenty-four feet long.

It would be vain to attempt assigning the uses of most of these noxious and formidable reptiles. Though the flesh of the viper has been converted to salutary purposes in

medicine, yet in the countries where they abound, man is found to suffer more from their noxious qualities than he is benefitted by their medicinal virtues. Providence, however, in some measure, seems to secure him from the dangers of those which are most fatal: the rattle-snake, for instance, whose bite is mortal, warns him of its vicinity, by sounding its rattles: the most formidable avoid his approach, and seldom attack him without former provocation. In some countries the serpent kind are even rendered useful, and, like cats, employed for the purposes of destroying domestic vermin. Whether Providence intended that all things should be for man's use, is a question we cannot resolve, as we are ignorant of the designs of Providence. It is sufficient for us to know, that by granting us such superior powers to all other animals, it has, in fact, rendered such of them as we think proper to employ entirely subservient to all the purposes of our pleasures or necessities.

INTRODUCTION ¹

TO THE

HISTORY OF INSECTS.

THOSE animals which by their size chiefly attract our attention are but the smallest part of animated nature: the whole earth swarms with living beings; every plant, every grain and leaf, supports the life of thousands. Vegetables seem, at first sight, to be the parts of organized nature which are produced in the greatest abundance; but, upon minuter inspection, we shall find each supporting numberless minute creatures, who fill up the various gradations of youth, vigour, and old age, in the space of a few days existence.

Vegetables are generally produced but once in a season; but among insects, especially of the smaller kinds, a single summer suffices for several generations. These, therefore, would multiply in a greater abundance than the plants on

¹ Introduction to vol. iv. of Brookes's 'Natural History.'—ED.

which they subsist, but that they are destroyed by other animals, and often by each other: the spider feeds on the fly; the birds upon the spiders; and they, in turn, make the food of man and every beast of prey.

Some insects as to their conformation are composed of several rings, joined together by a membrane, which is the usual form of the body in grubs, worms, and caterpillars. Unlike birds, who traverse the air with such rapidity, these humble animals, seemingly less favourites of nature, move forward but slowly. The whole body consists of a chain of annular muscles, whose orbicular fibres being contracted, render one of the rings that was before ample and dilated narrow and long. The fibres of these rings are found to be spiral, as are their motions in a great measure, so that by this means they can the better bore their passage into the earth. Their crawling motion may be explained by a wire wound round a walking-cane, which when slipt off, and attempted to be lengthened, has an elastic contraction of one ring to the other. In like manner the earthworm, having shot out or extended its body, lays hold upon some substance with its small feet, and so brings onward the hinder part of its body.

Caterpillars have feet both before and behind, which not only enable them to move forward by a sort of steps made by their fore and hinder parts, but also to climb up vegetables, and to stretch themselves out from the boughs and stalks to reach food at a distance. Behind, their broad palms are beset almost round with sharp small nails, to hold and grasp whatever they are upon; likewise before, their feet are sharp and hooked, by which they can lay hold of leaves, while their hinder parts are brought up thereto. Reptiles that have many feet may be observed to move them regularly one after another, and from one end of the body to another, in such a manner that their legs in walking make a sort of undulation; and by this means they move much swifter forward than one would imagine. The motion of snails is performed in a different manner; they have a broad skin along each side of the belly, which has an undulating motion, which, with the help of the slime that covers their bodies, they can move slowly forward, and adhere to every surface at pleasure.

The second sort of insects are flies of various kinds, whose bodies are covered by small plates, not unlike our ancient armour, the pieces of which are lengthened by unfolding, and shortened by running over each other. These lead a more luxurious life, transfer themselves from place to place with rapidity, and spend their little existence in feasting and propagating their kind.

The third sort are ants, spiders, and others, whose bodies are divided into two or three portions, joined by a sort of ligament. Of all the race of reptiles these seem to be endowed with the greatest share of sagacity. The wisdom of the ant, and its well-formed commonwealth, is too well known to be insisted on; but the spider, though it leads a solitary and rapacious life, seems endowed with even superior instincts. Its various artifices to ensnare its prey, and, when no longer able to supply a new web itself, the stratagems it lays to get possession of that belonging to another are evidences of its cunning.¹

The minuteness of insects may render them contemptible in the eyes of the unthinking; but when we consider the art and mechanism in so minute a structure, the fluids circulating in vessels so small as to escape the sight, the beauty of their wings and covering, and the manner in which each is adapted for procuring its peculiar pleasures, we shall find how little difference there is between the great and the little things of this life, since the Maker of all has bestowed the same contrivance in the formation of the elephant and the ant.

The structure of the eye in insects is remarkably different from that of other creatures in several respects. It is defended by its own hardness against external injuries, and its cornea, or outer coat, is all over divided into lenticular facets, and through the microscope appears as a beautiful piece of lattice work. Each hole in this is of such a nature, that when looked through every object seems inverted. This mechanism alone supplies the place of the crystalline humour, which is not to be found in insects. Spiders have generally eight eyes, and flies may be said to have as many as there are perforations in the cornea. Other creatures are

¹ See Goldsmith's account of the spider in his 'Bee' essay (vol. ii. p. 369), written some four years before this.—ED.

obliged to turn their eyes different ways to behold objects, but flies have them so contrived as to take in every object near them at once. In order to keep their eyes clean, they are provided with two antennæ, or feelers. Some, however, are of opinion, that they clean their eyes with their fore legs as well as the feelers; nor is this conjecture ill founded, when we consider, that in some sorts, particularly the flesh-fly, the feelers are too short for this purpose, and therefore their legs alone can supply the defect.

The mechanism in the feet of flies and other insects deserves also our notice. The amphibious insects, which are obliged to live by land as well as water, have their hindmost legs made with commodious flat joints, having gristles on each side serving for oars to swim with, and placed at the extremity of the limb; but nearer the body there are two stiff supporters, to enable them to walk when they have occasion. In those insects whose motions are performed by leaping, such as the grasshopper and cricket, their thighs are strong and brawny; those, on the contrary, which use their claws in perforating the earth, have such parts made with strength and sharpness, as in the wild bee, and the beetle. There are even some animals that convey themselves by methods to us unknown. Insects which are generated in stagnant waters, are often found in new pits and ponds, and sometimes on the tops of houses and steeples. Spiders with their webs have been known to soar to a considerable height, having been seen above the highest steeple of York Minster. How these animals have been thus capable of conveying themselves from place to place is a phenomenon for which we are unable to account. Some years ago, it was the method to give reasons for every appearance in nature, but as philosophy grows more mature it becomes more cautious and diffident, nor blushes in many instances to avow its ignorance.

Those insects which are provided with wings have tendons, which distend and strengthen them; those which are provided with four, use the outermost rather as cases to defend the internal wings than as instruments in flying. When the insect is at rest, the inner wings are generally gathered up in the manner we close a fan, nor is it without some efforts that the little animal can unfold it. Those,

however, whose wings are not cased in this manner, such as moths and butterflies, have them defended with feathers ; for that beautiful variety of colours which we so much admire appears, through a microscope, to be nothing more than different coloured plumage, as artfully placed as in the wings of birds, but too minute to be discerned by the naked eye. Such insects as have but two wings have two little balls, or poisers, joined to the body under the hinder part of each wing, that serve to keep them steady, and in some measure counteract the changes of the air, which might at every variation carry them in its current. If one of these poisers be cut off the insect will soon fall to the ground ; but if they are both cut, it will still fly, but yet in the direction of every breeze.

They are thus formed for motion, rather to provide sustenance than to avoid danger. As from their natural weakness they are the prey of every superior order of animals, they seem to find safety only in their minuteness or retirement ; but even with every precaution they furnish out a repast to swallows and other birds, who, while to us they seem sporting in the air, are then employed in procuring their necessary subsistence. The insect itself, however, is at the same time in pursuit of some inferior order of insects ; for there are the same hostilities among the smallest that there are amongst the largest animals.

Summer is the season of their pleasures ; many of them never live above a single season, while others are found to continue but one day. Such however as are more long-lived, take the proper precautions to provide for their safety in winter, and fix upon the most convenient situations for spending that interval, and such as want food lay in the proper stores for subsistence. But the greatest number want no such necessary stock, for they sleep during the continuance of the winter. Some caterpillars, for instance, having fed during the summer, retire, at the approach of cold, to a place of safety, and there, by spinning a thread like a cobweb, hang themselves in some commodious place, covered with a factitious coat, which at once serves to keep them warm, and guard them from external injuries. Here they continue in this torpid state till the returning sun calls them to new life ; they now expand new wings, and become

butterflies, which seem scarce employed in any other manner than that of reproducing their kinds. Thus we see among insects those different offices of eating, sleeping, and generation, make different seasons in their lives. Were we to compare them with other animals we should find, that while those pursue such pleasures by frequent returns, these experience each but once in their lives, and die.

There are some insects, however, which lay up provisions for the winter, of which the bee and the foreign ant are remarkable instances. The wasp, the hornet, and the wild bee are not less assiduous in laying in a proper stock of food, and fitting up commodious apartments; but this is wholly for the sake of their young, for they forsake their nests in winter, leave their young furnished with every convenience, and retire themselves to other places, where, in all probability, they live without eating.

In general, all insects are equally careful for posterity, and find out proper places wherein to lay their eggs, that, when they are hatched and produce young ones there may be sufficient food to maintain them; whether they choose trees, plants, or animal substances, still the pascent creature¹ finds a bed which at once supplies food and protection. The plum and the pea each seem to give birth to insects peculiarly formed for residing in them. The pear and apple produce a white moth; on the oak leaf are hatched several of beautiful colours, white, green, yellow, brown, and variegated. The manner in which those insects lay their eggs is sufficiently curious; they wound the leaf half through, and then deposit their eggs in the little cavity. As the insect increases, its nidus, or bed, increases also, so that we often see the leaves of trees with round swellings on the surface, upon opening of which we may discover numberless insects not yet come to maturity. On oak trees these nests appear like little buds, and are in fact only gems or buds, which are increased in thickness when they ought to have been pushed out in length. The insect thrusts one or more eggs into the very heart of the gem, which begins to be turgid in June, and but for this would have shot out in July. This egg soon becomes a maggot, that eats itself a

¹ No doubt the *passant*, or easily suited, creature is meant.—ED.

small cell in the midst of the bud, the vegetation of which being thus obstructed, the sap designed to nourish it is diverted to the remaining parts of the bud, which are only scaly integuments that by this means grow large, and become a covering to the case in which the insect lies. But not only the oak, but the willow, and some other trees and plants, have knobs thus formed, which generally grow in or near the rib of the leaf. Among these cases formed by insects, the Aleppo galls may be reckoned as the most useful, the insects of which, when come to maturity, gnaw their way out, as may be seen by the little holes in every nut. But all these are formed by the ichneumon kinds of flies, namely, of those kinds which are vulgarly called the blue-bottle fly.

Those kinds, however, which do not wound the leaf, take great pains to lay their eggs on the surface, in the exactest and most curious manner. When thus deposited, they are always fastened thereto with a glue, and constantly at the same end. Those which lay them in the waters, place them in beautiful rows, and generally in a sily substance, to prevent their being carried away with the motion of the water. Upon posts, and on the sides of windows in country villages, little round eggs have been seen resembling pearls, which produced small hairy caterpillars, and those like the rest are all laid in very regular order. The gnat, though so very small, is yet very curious in the manner of depositing her eggs, or spawn. It lays them on the water, but fixes them to some floating substance by means of a stalk, which prevents them from sinking. The eggs are contained in a sort of transparent jelly, and very neatly laid; when hatched by the warmth of the season, they sink to the bottom, where they become small maggots, stick to the stones, and provide themselves cases, or cells, which they creep into or go out of at pleasure, and thus continue till they take the usual change into that of a fly. Most of these insects are tinged with one principal colour, resembling either that of the leaves on which they subsist, or the branches to which they fasten; on these they march with great slowness, and by this artifice are confounded with what they subsist upon, so as to escape the birds, their rapacious and watchful enemies. Such is the manner with those insects which being

hatched from eggs, are then transformed into caterpillars, which may be called their eating state; after that, wrapped round with a covering of their own fabrication, and thus turned into nymphæ, which may be called their sleeping state; and lastly, furnished with wings, and metamorphosed into butterflies, which is their generating state.

But there are numberless other insects which are brought forth alive, such as the spider, and the snail produced with a shell, which grows with its growth, and is never found to forsake it. These are never seen to change, but continue their growth: the spider, as it becomes older, has its legs longer, and if they be cut off, like those of the lobster they grow out afresh. The snail, as it becomes more old, acquires additional ringlets to its shell, and contains in itself both sexes. But there is an animal lately discovered, whose powers of generation are still more extraordinary than anything hitherto taken notice of, and from the phenomena attending which, Mr. Buffon has ventured to affirm, that he still believes there may be such a thing as equivocal generation. The animal in question is called the polypus, a small reptile found on aquatic plants, and in muddy ditches. This surprising creature, though cut into ever so many parts, still continues to live in every division, and each, in less than three days, becomes in every respect a perfect polypus, like that which was at first divided. This I think may be justly esteemed the lowest of animated beings, and scarce to be ranked above the sensitive plant, except by being endowed with a locomotive faculty, or a power of moving from one leaf to another. It is thus that Nature chooses to mix the kinds of being by imperceptible gradation, so that it becomes hard to determine where animals end, or vegetables begin.¹ In this there are evident marks of her wisdom in filling up every chasm in the great scale of being, so that no possible existence may be wanting in her universal plan. Were we to ask, why these minute creatures, in general little regarded by man, except from the prejudice they are of to his labours, were formed in such great abundance, it would be no easy task to find a

¹ Compare Goldsmith's account of the polypus in the 'Animated Nature' extracts in this volume.—ED.

reply. For man's use they were not made, as they are allowed to be noxious to him; nor for the sustenance of other animals that may be of use to him, since the advantages of the latter cannot compensate for damage done by the former; perhaps the wisest answer would be, that every creature was formed for itself, and each allowed to seize as great a quantity of happiness from the universal stock, as was consistent with the universal plan; thus each was formed to make the happiness of each; the weak of the strong, and the strong of the weak, but still in proportion to every order, power of conquest and enjoyment. Thus we shall find, that though man may be reciprocally useful to other animals, yet in some measure they were formed for his use, because he has been endowed with every power of rendering them subservient, and enjoying their submission.¹

INTRODUCTION.²

[OF BOTANY IN GENERAL.]

IF we consider the different methods in which the knowledge of Botany has been treated of late, we shall find that

¹ The fifth volume of Brookes's 'Natural History' was devoted to "The Natural History of Waters and Earths, of Fossils and Minerals," &c., and its Introduction Prior omitted, while giving all the other Introductions, thinking it was certainly not Goldsmith's, but probably by Brookes himself. We also omit the Introduction on Minerals, &c., which appears much more doubtful than the following one upon Botany, though, as we have said in its notes, the latter has doubtful points also.—ED.

² Introduction to vol. vi. of Brookes's 'Natural History.' The title of the volume runs—'The Natural History of Vegetables, as well Foreign as Indigenous,' &c. The use of the word "vegetables" in this title, in lieu of the more scientific term "botany," savours something of Goldsmith, and therefore favours the theory which attributes this Introduction (at least in its first form) to him. When the 'Animated Nature' was nearly finished, the author proposed to its publisher a companion work on "the vegetable and fossil kingdoms" (See Letter to Nourse, vol. i. p. 473); but six weeks later Goldsmith was dead. In the second, and "corrected," edition of Brookes's 'Natural History,' published in 1772 by Carnan and Newbery (John Newbery being then dead), this Introduction to Botany is very much altered. See notes to the present text, especially those at pp. 120, 127, 128.—ED.

none of the sciences so much require abridgment. The science of vegetables may properly enough be divided into three parts ; namely that of their arrangement in the botanical nomenclature, their culture, and their properties. The last is the only one of real importance ; the two former being subservient to it, and of no other benefit but as tending to make the latter more serviceable or more readily comprehended.

When the knowledge of vegetables is once reduced into a science, it is requisite that their names and distribution should be the first thing delivered ; but those who first attempted to learn the science from nature herself, knew the plant and its properties before they assigned it a name. We have been nourished with the fruits, we have been clad with the leaves or barks, and have built huts of the wood of trees, before we became solicitous as to their appellation ; chance rather than sagacity first taught us the use of plants, and their names followed their known utility. Hence it is obvious, that those immense labours which some late botanists have undergone to give us a list of the names of plants, can tend but little towards the discovery of their properties.¹

One would be led to suppose from the repeated endeavours to systematise this science, that the naming of plants was all they thought students had to learn. There have been more attempts made, and time consumed, in making catalogues of this nature, than, if properly directed, would have discovered several new properties in the vegetable world, as yet unknown. There have been numberless efforts made to impress distinct ideas of each plant, without giving the whole description ; but every botanical system has hitherto failed in this particular, and nothing but a perfect description of each can give an adequate idea. For this reason, leaving such systems to the speculative, I have in the following work pursued the common method, and given a perfect account of every vegetable ; its roots, leaves, stalks, height, flower, and seeds. Such complete descriptions are absolutely necessary

¹ The "late botanists" no doubt included Linnæus and Tournefort, whose "system making" is characteristically attacked by our author here and elsewhere. The fact that these passages of the present Introduction were cut out of the second edition seems to tell for Goldsmith's authorship of the first form. See note 2, p. 126.—ED.

to distinguish one object from another throughout every department of Natural History, but particularly in this, where the objects are so numerous. The deviations of nature are not to be reduced into systems: there are in plants no parts which are manifested in all the species; the flowers and the seeds which seem the most essential, and of consequence the most invariable, are not to be found similar in many of the same sorts, although our most boasted systems are wholly founded upon the similitude in the parts of fructification.

I hope therefore students will excuse me for not having adopted either the systems of Tournefort or Linnæus,¹ in contradiction to nature and experience; my design being not to amuse the speculative, but to direct the industrious. Their attempts to reduce the names of plants into a system, have rendered the study more difficult and more subject to error, than it would have been if the student had only used his sight for the distinguishing of plants, and his memory for registering them. The number also of vegetables which they have undertaken to register, is equally prejudicial to this useful study; not less than twenty thousand species have been classed, a multitude, the mere remembering of which would employ all that time which might be usefully spent in the investigation of their particular uses. Instead therefore of expatiating upon so large, yet barren, a field, I have only taken care to describe all such exotics as are useful to us, either in medicine or manufactures, and all indigenous plants that have been at any time in use, which though now obsolete may deserve one day an attention of which at present they are thought undeserving.²

Leaving therefore systematical arrangement, let us treat this subject in the manner of the ancients, as Pliny and Aristotle (if the work upon this subject ascribed to him be genuine) have handled it. Such as have been found already

¹ The names are omitted in the second edition, as mentioned in the preceding note.—ED.

² Such as would desire to be more fully convinced of the fertility of the botanical system, may consult a memoir written by M. Daubenton, the present keeper of the royal cabinet at Paris.—*Au mot Botanique, Encyclop. fol. vol. ii. p. 340.*—GOLDSMITH. [This note, which, with the Introduction, we assume to be Goldsmith's, is omitted from the second edition.—ED.]

useful to mankind we shall take particular care minutely to describe, and leave to posterity and chance to find out the uses of those now unnoticed.

In every vegetable production we may consider either the seed, the root, the leaf, the bark, the stalk, the pith, and the flower ; all of which are necessary in carrying on the business of vegetation, and transmitting the species from season to season without interruption. But though the principles of vegetation reside in every part of the plant, yet we generally find greater proportions of oil in the more elaborate and exalted parts of vegetables, namely, the seed. This containing the rudiments of the future vegetable, it was necessary that it should be well stored with principles that would preserve the seed from putrefaction, and tend to promote vegetation. When the seed is sown, in a few days it imbibes so much moisture as to swell, so that it produces the radicle or incipient root, with some force, which when shot into the ground, imbibes nourishment from thence, and what it receives becomes, in a short time, the chief supply of future growth. When the root is thus far grown, it supplies the plume with nourishment, till this, by expanding and growing thinner, turns to green leaves, which are of such importance to the incipient plant, that it perishes, and will not thrive if they are pulled off. But when the plume is so far come to maturity, as to have branches and expanded leaves to draw up nourishment, these seminal leaves being no longer useful, perish ; their perspiration being impeded by the newly produced leaves that overshadow them, and their sap being drawn away by the larger channels of the upper foliage.

As the plant advances in stature, the first, second, third, and fourth order of lateral branches shoot out, each lower order being larger than those immediately above them, not only on account of their having a longer time to grow, but because being inserted in large parts of the trunk, and nearer the root which is the grand supply, they are provided with greater plenty of sap, from whence we generally see trees tapering beautifully to the top.

Upon the discovery of the circulation of the blood in animals, botanists seemed willing to think, from the analogy there was between all the works of nature, that the same

circulation must also have prevailed in vegetables; and some have actually undertaken to prove, that the sap first rises to the tops of trees by the pith, and then again descends to the root by the bark, with the swiftest motion. This was long a received opinion, till the learned Dr. Hales¹ undertook by experiment to undeceive the public, and has led many to be of his opinion: When, says he, the sap has first passed through that thick and fine strainer, the bark of the root (which may be regarded as the stomach of vegetables in general, where the greatest part of the nourishment is prepared and taken in) there it is found in great quantities in the most lax part between the bark and the wood; early in the spring it begins to rise. But as this sap is imbibed from the earth in great quantities, its celerity, continues he, would be incredible if that quantity first ascended to the top of the tree, and then descended again before it were carried off by perspiration. The defect of circulation, however, in vegetables, he accounts for by the superior quantity of liquor carried off by perspiration than what is perspired by animals, having shown that a sunflower, bulk for bulk, imbibes and perspires seventeen times more fresh liquor than a man every twenty-four hours. So that though the sap ascends with great velocity in vegetables, from this great quantity of subtile fluid carried off by the leaves, yet there seems no reason for its descent in any such proportion, nor would it have sufficient time to supply the plant with nutrition, if it went round so briskly; Such was the opinion of this great naturalist. Mr. Du Hamel, however, who has written since his time, has undertaken to prove the descent of the sap in vegetables, as well as its ascent, by making a circular incision on the barks of trees, and finding the swelling of the bark above the incision was greater than that below it, which equally answered if the plant and its pot were inverted, the roots being in air, the branches downward. However, this may be certain, that there is a constant flow of juices through every plant, the roots furnishing it in great quantities, while the leaves spreading an extended surface to the sun,

¹ This reference to Dr. Hales remains in the second edition, but the quotation from him which follows is cut out.—ED.

have their moisture attracted in very large quantities, and when the influence of his beams no longer continue, they at night act as sponges, and imbibe the humidity of the air. Thus we see that the leaves are absolutely necessary in the work of vegetation; they, like young animals, are furnished with instruments to suck it from thence; and beside this, they separate and carry off the redundant watery fluid, which by being long detained, would turn rancid, and become noxious to the plant.

But as the leaves are found to exhale moisture, so they are known to imbibe nourishment from the air. The acid and sulphureous spirit with which the air is fraught, is thence extracted by the leaves of plants, so that it is probable the most exalted and aromatic principles of vegetables are derived from this source, rather than from the grosser watery fluid of the sap. Leaves are found to perform in some measure the same office for the support of vegetative life, that the lungs of animals do for the support of animal life; but as plants have not a power of contracting or dilating the chest, their inspirations will depend wholly on the alternate changes of the air. Plants of the more rich and racy juices imbibe greater quantities of nutriment from the air than the more vapid and succulent plants which are found to abound more in sap. The vine, for instance, is known by experiment to draw but little watery nutriment from the earth by its roots, and therefore it imbibes greater quantities of dew, impregnated with air by night, from whence it derives its richness of flavour; and this may be the reason why plants in hot countries abound more with fine aromatic principles than northern vegetables; the former chiefly extracting their juices from the air by the leaf, the latter theirs from the earth by the root.

Nothing can exceed the regularity with which leaves are placed on every plant,¹ and Bonetius has been at the pains of describing the different dispositions they assume; the alternate, the crossing, the vertical, the quincunx, and the spiral, are the divisions he makes of their arrangements.¹ But the care which, when budding, nature seems to take

¹.¹ Omitted from the second edition.—ED.

of the young shoots, still deserves greater admiration, for the most tender parts are ever defended by those which have acquired a greater degree of strength. Besides this, the leaf, as may be easily seen, has two different surfaces, the upper which seems more smooth and polished, the lower in which the ribs are more prominent, and the colour of a paler green; the cause of this difference has not a little puzzled the botanists of every age; perhaps the upper polished surface, from its position being more liable to the external injuries of the air and rains, is thus formed rather to defend the lower part, in which probably the attractive powers may reside.

In this manner the leaves of trees contribute to improve the flavour of the fruits, and regulate the vegetation. When trees stand thick together in woods or groves, the lower branches, being shaded by those of neighbouring trees, can perspire little, and imbibe less, wherefore they perish; but the top branches being exposed to a free air, they perspire plentifully, and by this means drawing the sap to the top, they advance in height rather than extent: so that Dr. Hales compares a tree to a complicated engine, which hath as many different powers of attraction as it hath arms or branches, each drawing from their common fountain of life, the root. The younger the plant, the greater its power of attraction, while as it grows older the vessels of circulation become more rigid, and the parts to be produced more inflexible, till at last the parts, no longer capable from the rigidity of age, either of protrusion or dilatation, the plant acquires its greatest degree of hardness, but continues to vegetate no longer. ¹ So that in all we see the admirable contrivance of the Author of nature, in adapting different ways of conveying nourishment to the different circumstances of her productions. In the embryo state the quantity which the bud demands relative to its size is very great; when it is increased, though a much greater quantity of nourishment is then necessary, yet less suffices each particular part, so that nature produces no organized being which it is not able to supply.¹

But the assiduity of nature in the protection of the grow-

^{1.1} Omitted from the second edition.—ED.

ing plant is not greater than her care to preserve the seeds which are to propagate the future vegetable uninjured. The curious expansion of blossoms and flowers seems to be appointed by nature, not only to protect, but also to convey nourishment to the embryo seed. ¹ M. Vaillant even seems to regard flowers as the criterion which constitute the difference of sex in plants; he pretends that the leaves of plants are nothing more than coverings which serve to wrap up the organs of generation, with which all plants are furnished, they having not less than animals their different sexes.¹

Tournefort,² whose name we have adopted, distinguishes five parts in flowers, namely, the petal, the stamen, the apex, the pistil, and calix, or cup; these parts, however are not found united in all flowers, but some have one part, some another. To give the ignorant an idea of these, let us take the carnation, a common flower, for an example, as containing them all. The leaves or petals of flowers are so called to distinguish them from the leaf of the plant. The petals are therefore the beautiful striped leaves that compose the flower of the carnation; the stamen is that small slender stalk, several of which are found growing in the midst of the petals; the apex is the little head with which every stamen is terminated; the pistil is that single eminence, in the midst of all terminated by two or three crooked filaments; while the calix or cup is that exterior green part of the flower which encloses and supports the rest. Such flowers as have stamina with apexes at the end, in general have two little receptacles containing a dust or farina, but produce no fruit. They are called male plants. Such, on the contrary, as have only a pistil, which is succeeded by the fruit, are called female. Those, on the other hand, which have both stamina and pistils, are called hermaphrodite plants, as uniting both sexes in one. In order to perform the business of fecundity, it has been supposed

¹⁻¹ Omitted from the second edition.—ED.

² Joseph Pitton de Tournefort, a famous botanist of France: 1656-1708. Goldsmith's rather poor collection of books, which was called his "Library," in the sale of his effects after his death (by Mr. Good, "in the Great Room, 121 Fleet Street," July 12th, 1774) contained a copy of the "*Herbaria, Par.* 3 vol. 1719," Tournefort's principal work, and also "*Linnaei Systema*, 3 vols." See note at p. 128.—ED.

that the dust or farina, contained in the apex of the male flower, was scattered by the wind, or otherwise, upon the pistil of the female flowers, which was adapted with a proper apparatus for receiving it, and became by this means prolific. It has been also found by experience, that when the male and female flowers were separated by a high wall, or otherwise, the latter continued barren and produced no seed; however, this whole theory has of late been strongly opposed by many eminent botanists, particularly the late Dr. Alston¹ of Edinburgh, a man of extensive knowledge in such subjects, and of indefatigable industry.

The fruits in general serve to supply the seed with moisture, and may be compared to a chemical laboratory, in which the oleaginous juices are prepared; those kernels in particular which are enclosed within a thick shell, and receive nourishment from the fruit expanded round it, have the vessels which supply this nut, running perpendicularly inward, but making convolutions round the edges of the shell, in order to prepare the oils in still greater perfection.

In all fruits Linnæus distinguishes the pericardium, or inner covering, in which the seed is lodged, the semen, or seed, and the receptaculum, or husk, as we call it, which is the part which supports the seed or the flower, or both together.

The pericardium he divides into eight kinds, to wit, 1. The capsula, or pod, which is composed of several elastic cells, which generally open of themselves when ripe, and which inclose the seed in one or more cells. 2. The conceptaculum, which only differs from the capsula, in that it is void of elasticity. 3. The siliqua. 4. The legumen. 5. The drupa. 6. The pomum. 7. The bacca. 8. The strobilus or cone. Such are the divisions this naturalist has thought proper to make in fruits; but if we examine nature, we shall find that these are perfectly arbitrary, and that to understand these minute distinctions, is more diffi-

¹ Dr. Charles Alston, who died in 1760. He was professor of Botany and Materia Medica at Edinburgh when Goldsmith was a student there. Our author mentions him in the letter to his uncle Contarine. See Letters, p. 418, vol. i. This allusion to Dr. Alston, it will be seen by the next note, is in the matter omitted from the second edition.—ED.

cult than to become acquainted with her real productions.¹

But though fruits in general are the most inconsiderable agents in promoting the work of vegetation, being, as has been already observed, only destined for supplying the seed with proper moisture and nourishment; yet, with respect to man, they make the most useful and pleasing part of vegetable productions. Their general properties, as constituting a part of our food, may be considered as arising from their different degrees of maturity. In general, while unripe, they may be considered as astringent, and in some measure partaking of the qualities of the bark of their respective trees; when come to a sufficient degree of maturity, they cool and attenuate, but from too great a power in these respects, they often bring on disorders that are fatal, particularly in warmer climates, where their juices are possessed of those qualities still more than with us. In our climates, however, this seldom happens, and they probably do not make a sufficient part of our diet.

As many expedients have been tried among us for preserving fruit fresh all the year, I shall beg leave to give one communicated to the public by the Chevalier Southwell, and which has been used in France with success. Take of saltpetre one pound, of bole armenic two pounds, of common sand well freed from its earthy parts, four pounds, and mix all together; after this, let the fruit be gathered with the hand before it be thorough ripe, each fruit being handled only by the stalk; lay them regularly, and in order, in a large wide-mouthed glass vessel; then cover the top of the glass with an oiled paper, and carrying it into a dry place, set it in a box filled all round to about four inches thickness with the aforesaid preparations, so that no part of the glass vessel shall appear, being buried in a manner in the prepared nitre; and at the end of the year such fruits may be taken out as beautiful as when they were first put in.²

¹ This and the preceding three paragraphs, commencing with "Tournefort, whose name," &c., were omitted from the second or "corrected" edition of Brookes's work, 1772. Instead, an additional four pages on flowers and vegetables were given. See next note.—ED.

² This last paragraph, like those mentioned in the preceding notes, was

INTRODUCTION

TO

‘A GENERAL HISTORY OF THE WORLD, FROM THE CREATION TO THE PRESENT TIME. . . . BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ., JOHN GRAY, ESQ., AND OTHERS EMINENT IN THIS BRANCH OF LITERATURE.’ 12 vols. 8vo. London, J. Newbery, R. Baldwin, &c., 1764.¹

EXPERIENCE every day convinces us, that no part of learning affords so much wisdom upon such easy terms as history. Our advances in most other studies are slow and disgusting, acquired with effort, and retained with difficulty ; but in a well-written history, every step we proceed only serves to increase our ardour : we profit by the experience of others without sharing their toils or misfortunes ; and in this part of knowledge in a more particular manner study is but relaxation.

Of all histories, however, that which, not confined to any particular reign or country but which extends to the transactions of all mankind, is the most useful and entertaining. As in geography we can have no just idea of the situation of one country without knowing that of others, so in history, it is in some measure necessary to be acquainted with the whole thoroughly to comprehend a part. There is a constant, though sometimes concealed, concate-

omitted from the second edition of Brookes’s work, 1772. Of a subsequent edition, 1775, the publishers advertised, in opposition to Goldsmith’s then selling ‘Animated Nature,’ that “four volumes of this edition were corrected by Mr. Oliver Goldsmith,” and there is an item in Newbery’s accounts, under date 1766 (vol. i. p. 483), which shows that Goldsmith was paid £21 for “correcting 4 vols. Brooks’s.” It may hence perhaps be assumed that Goldsmith corrected the first four volumes for the revision, and agreed to let the remainder, including the essay on Botany, be dealt with by another, probably Brookes himself. Another view, of course, is that our author did not write the Botany introduction, and that, therefore, in “correcting” the “four vols.” of the second edition, he dealt with the work so far as he wrote introductions, &c., for it, and no further.—ED.

¹ Or thirteen vols. with the index volume. See the note at the end of this Preface.—ED.

nation in events, by which they produce each other, and without a knowledge of which they cannot be comprehended separately. The rise of one kingdom is often found owing to political defects in some other. The arts and learning of succeeding states take a tincture from those countries from whence they were originally derived. Some nations have been applauded for plans of government, which an acquaintance with general history would have shown were not their own; while others have been reproached for barbarities which were not natural to them, but the result of erroneous imitation. Thus no one part of the general picture can be thoroughly conceived alone; but by taking in the whole of history at one view, we can trace every cause to its remotest source, observe how far every nation was indebted to its own efforts for its rise or decline, how far to accident or the particular circumstances of the countries around it. We may here trace the gradations of its improvement or decay, mark in what degree conquerors introduced refinement among those they subdued, or how far they conformed to the soil and put on barbarity. By such reflections as these, and by applying the transactions of past times to our own, we may become more capable of regulating our private conduct, or directing that of others in society.

A knowledge of Universal History is therefore highly useful; nor is it less entertaining. Tacitus complains, that the transactions of a few reigns could not afford him a sufficient stock of materials to please or interest the reader;¹ but here that objection is entirely removed. A History of the World presents the most striking events, with the greatest variety. In fact, what can be more entertaining than thus reviewing this vast theatre where we ourselves are performers, to converse with those who have been great or famous, to condemn the vices of tyrants without fearing their resentment, or praise the virtues of the good without conscious adulation, to constitute ourselves judges of the merit of even kings, and thus to anticipate what posterity will say of such as now hear only the voice of flattery? These are a part of the many advantages which Universal

¹ Compare Letter I. of the 'History of England in Letters from a Nobleman to his Son' in the present volume.—ED.

History has over all others, and which have encouraged so many writers to attempt compiling works of this kind, among the ancients as well as the moderns. Each of them seems to have been invited by the manifest utility of the design; yet it must be owned, that many of them have failed through the great and unforeseen difficulties of the undertaking.

Nor will the reader be surprised, if he considers how many obstructions an historian who embarks in a work of this nature has to interrupt his progress. The barrenness of events in the early periods of history, and their fertility in modern times, equally serve to increase his embarrassments. In recounting the transactions of remote antiquity, there is such a defect of materials, that the willingness of mankind to supply the chasm has given birth to falsehood, and invited conjecture. The farther we look back into those distant periods, all the objects seem to become more obscure, or are totally lost by a sort of perspective diminition. In this case, therefore, when the eye of truth could no longer discern clearly, fancy undertook to form the picture, and fables were invented where truths were wanting. So that were an historian to relate all that has been conjectured concerning the transactions before the flood, it would be found to compose by no means the smallest part of universal history; a composition equally voluminous, obscure, and disgusting.

In the work, therefore, which is here presented to the public, we have been very concise in relating these fictions and conjectures, which have been the result of idleness, fraud, or superstition. Nor yet would the task have been difficult to amaze the ignorant, as some have done before us, with obscure erudition and scholastic conjecture. The regions of conjectural erudition are wide and extensive; in them there is room for every new adventurer, and immense loads of neglected learning still remain to be carried from thence into our own language. There, as in those desolate and remote countries that are colonized by sickening states, every stranger who thinks proper may enter and cultivate; there is much room; but after much labour he will most probably find it an ungrateful soil. Were we disposed to enter upon such a province, we might easily, for instance,

with some rabbins, enquire whether Adam were a hundred cubits high, or of the ordinary stature; we might, with Hornius, examine whether he were a philosopher or a savage; or with Antoinette Bourignon, whether a man or an hermaphrodite. In delivering the history of the deluge, after having compiled the systems of our own countrymen, we might have improved upon our predecessors with those of Steno, Scheuchzer, and La Pluche; having mentioned the antiquities of Egypt, we might have made a digression on the Isiac table, ran round the circle of quotation, collected the opinions of Rudbeck, Fabricius, Herwart, Kircher, Witsius, and Pignorius, concerning this singular piece of antiquity; prove that they could make nothing of it; pathetically complain that the learned authors of a late Universal History had taken none of these subjects under consideration, and at last leave the reader in pristine ignorance.¹ But surely men of real knowledge cannot, without a degree of sarcastic contempt, behold such pretences to erudition, such a quackery of learning, acquired by the easy arts of quoting from quotations, by consulting books, but not from reading them. Pretenders in every science are ostentatious; but real learning, like real charity, chooses to do good unseen.

We have therefore declined enlarging on such disquisitions, not for want of materials, which offered themselves at every step of our progress, but because we thought them not worth discussing. Neither have we, for this reason, encumbered the beginning of our work with the various opinions of the heathen philosophers concerning the creation, which may be found in most of our systems of theology, and belong more properly to the divine than the historian. In fact, we are not fond of building up an edifice merely for the sake of pulling it down, or of arranging the opinions of men only to show their uncertainty; for in the present instance, to use the words of Lactantius, *horum*

¹ There were several Universal Histories just published, or publishing, at this time, the chief in England being that of the London booksellers, which ran to 64 volumes (1747-1766), and of which Dr. Johnson gave the names of the compilers, as in Boswell (Stan. Lib. edit. 1884, v. iv. p. 291). Voltaire's 'Universal History' and its translations seem to have set the fashion for these encyclopedic works.—ED.

omnium sententia quamvis sit incerta, eodem tamen spectat, ut providentiam unam esse consentiant, sive enim natura, sive æther, sive ratio, sive mens, sive fatalis neccssitas, sive divina lex, idem est quod à nobis dicitur Deus; so that most philosophers agree in the main—they allow one intelligent Creator, and are found to differ less in sense than expression.

Throughout this work, therefore, not to make any vain or unnecessary displays of erudition, we acknowledge that the materials to which we have had recourse, are the same with those which other historians for several ages have employed before us, and which have been well known to the learned since the revival of letters. It would be unjust to make pretences to new discoveries of this kind; since neither we nor our predecessors in universal history, whatever the ignorant may suppose, have discovered any hidden stores already unexplored for compiling ancient history. Neither they nor we have found way to the libraries of Fez or Amara; all the merit of the compiler of ancient history in the present age lies, not in his discoveries of new assistance, but in his use and arrangement of that already known.

To deal candidly with the reader, there is little known of early antiquity but what is contained in the scriptures, those sacred books to which the ignorant may, or ought to have, recourse as well as we. As for what remains of Sanconiathon, Manetho, Berossus,¹ and such like, how well-soever the names may sound in the ear of ignorance, or come from the lips of vanity, the learned have, for several ages, forsaken them as sources from whence little or no information can be derived. The little we have of them

¹ Goldsmith has himself proved how well such names “may sound in the ear of ignorance,” and thereby, indeed, has immortalized those otherwise dubious ancient personages, Sanconiathon, Manetho, and Berossus, by the use he makes of them in his delineation of the rogue Jenkinson. (‘Vicar of Wakefield,’ chap. xiv., &c.) A similar use is made of these writers in the article on Clubs. (Essays: see v. i., p. 255). By the way, if proof were wanting that the present Preface is by Goldsmith, the above passage, taken in connection with the Jenkinson episodes in the ‘Vicar,’ would supply it. The tale was probably partly in MS. at this time. It was completed and sold to John Newbery in 1764, though not published by F. Newbery till 1766. (See ‘Life,’ p. 20, 21, and the note on the Newberies in the Appendix to the present volume.)—ED.

remaining is not less useless by mutilation than absurdity. Sanconiathon is without authority; and as for Manetho, what we have of his, according to Eusebius's account of him, is but a translation into the usual Greek character of monuments written in sacred characters, and preserved by the Egyptian Hierophantes; which monuments were themselves translated from a sacred language, which was extracted from a different sacred character, which was engraven on columns before the flood. The truth is, that long before the time of Manetho, the old Egyptian sacred character was unknown; for it is probable that it continually suffered innovation. As early as the times of Herodotus, those which were engraven on some of the pyramids were utterly unintelligible to the priests themselves; but long after, upon the invasion of Egypt by Alexander, the Grecians, who had at first received their learning from the Egyptians, returned the obligation, and brought philosophy back to Egypt very much improved; by which means the refined opinions of the conquerors began by degrees to mix themselves with Egyptian theology.

From this period, therefore, the ancient systems began to be neglected, and their new mixture of superstition and philosophy to be written in new characters; so that at the times Manetho, Asclepiades, Palephates, Cheremon, and Hecateus, published their works, it is most probable that the ancient Egyptian learning was even unintelligible among the Egyptians. What credit, therefore, can be given to such forgeries, the most ordinary reader is left to judge; as for the learned, they have determined the point already.

All other monuments, therefore, of remote antiquity, except those contained in the sacred text, are obscure, mutilated, and trifling; nor is it, perhaps, any great loss to the present world that such useless materials are thus fallen in the wreck of time. Man, while yet unreduced by laws, and struggling with the beasts of the forest for divided dominion, while yet savage and solitary, was scarce an object whose actions were worth transmitting to posterity. The value of history arises from the necessary diversity of laws, arts, and customs among men, which inform the understanding, and produce an agreeable

variety; but savage life is the same in every climate and every age, presenting the observer only with one uniform picture—a life of suspicion, indolence, improvidence, and rapacity. Besides, the nearer history comes home to the present times, the more it is our interest to be acquainted with it, the accounts of ancient ages being only useful as introductory to our own; wherefore it happens well that those parts of which we know the least, are the least necessary to be known.

Sensible, therefore, how liable we are to redundancy in this first part of our design, it has been our endeavour to unfold ancient history with all possible conciseness; and, solicitous to improve the reader's stock of knowledge, we have been indifferent as to the display of our own. We have not stopt to discuss or confute all the absurd conjectures men of speculation have thrown in our way. We at first had even determined not to embarrass the page of truth with the names of those whose labours had only been calculated to encumber it with falsehood and vain speculation. However, we have thought proper, upon second thoughts, slightly to mention them and their opinions, quoting the author at the bottom of the page, so that the reader who is curious about such particularities, may know where to have recourse for fuller information.¹ But critical philology of this kind is pretty much, and justly, exploded in the present age: at the revival of letters, indeed, when all the stores of antiquity were as yet unexplored, the learned, as might naturally be expected, made greater use of their memory than their judgment, and exhausted their industry in examining opinions not yet well known. But all that could conduce to enlighten history has been since often examined, and placed in every point of view; it now only remains to show a skill rather in selecting than collecting, to discover a true veneration for the works of the ancients, not by compiling their sentiments, but by imitating their elegant simplicity.

¹ This, and a passage we have noted further on, suggest the probability of our author having had a hand in the 'History' itself, as well as in this Preface to it. It seems hardly likely that one writing merely the Preface would go into such matters of detail as those mentioned here and at p. 140. See also the note at p. 142.—ED.

As in the early part of history a want of real facts hath induced many to spin out the little that was known with conjecture, so in the modern department the superfluity of trifling anecdotes was equally apt to introduce confusion. In one case history has been rendered tedious from our want of knowing the truth; in the other, of knowing too much of truths not worth our notice. Every year that is added to the age of the world, serves to lengthen the page of its history; so that to give this branch of learning a just length in the circle of human pursuits, it is necessary to abridge several of the least important facts. It is true we often, at present, see the annals of a single reign, or even the transactions of a single year, occupying folios: but can the writers of such tedious journals ever hope to reach posterity? or do they think that our descendants, whose attention will naturally be turned to their own concerns, can exhaust so much time in the examination of ours? Though a late elegant writer has said much in favour of abridgments, we neither approve nor contend for them; but even such mutilated accounts are better than to have that short duration allotted us here below entirely taken up with minute details and uninteresting events. There are many other useful branches of knowledge as well as history to share our industry; but from the extent of some late works of this kind, one would be led to suppose that this study alone were recommended to fill up all the vacuities of life, and that to contemplate what others had done was all we had to do.

A plan of general history rendered too extensive, deters us from a study that is perhaps of all others the most useful, by rendering it too laborious; and instead of alluring our curiosity excites our despair. A late work has appeared to us highly obnoxious in this respect. There have been already published of that performance not less than fifty-four volumes, and it still remains unfinished, and perhaps may continue to go on *finishing* while it continues to find purchasers, or till time itself can no longer furnish new materials.¹ Already, as Livy hath exprest it upon a

¹ The History prefaced was published in 1764, as we have shown at p. 129, the 64 volume 'Universal History,' to which our author is here referring, was at that time unfinished; see note at p. 132.—ED.

different occasion—*Eo creavit ut magnitudine laboret sua*; it is grown to such a size, as actually to seem sinking under the weight of its own corpulence.

In fact, where is the reader possest of sufficient fortitude to undertake the painful task of travelling through such an immense tract of compilation, particularly if through the greatest part of this journey he should find no landscapes to amuse, nor pleasing regions to invite, but a continued uniformity of dreary prospects, shapeless ruins, and fragments of mutilated antiquity? Writers are unpardonable who convert our amusement into labour, and divest knowledge of one of its most pleasing allurements. The ancients have represented history under the figure of a woman, easy, graceful, and inviting; but we have seen her in our days converted, like the virgin of Nabis,¹ into an instrument of torture. But, in truth, such as read for profit and not for ostentation, seldom have any thing to do with such voluminous productions, which are utterly unsuited to human talents and time: they are at first usually caught up by vanity, and admired by ignorance; from their weight they naturally descend into the lower shelves of a large library, and ever after keep their stations there in unmolested obscurity.

How far we have retrenched these excesses, and steered between the opposites of exuberance and abridgement, the judicious are left to determine. We here offer the public a history of mankind from the earliest account of time to the present age, in twelve volumes, which, upon mature deliberation, appeared to us the proper mean. For as some have lengthened similar undertakings to ten times that size, so others have comprised the whole in one-tenth of our compass. Thus, for instance, Turselinus, Puffendorf, Bossuet, and Holberg, have each reduced universal history

¹ Nabis, a Spartan tyrant, who caused a statue of his wife to be constructed, which, by means of springs, seized the criminal who was placed within its embrace, and tortured him in the most excruciating manner by pressing him against sharp spikes of steel hid under its robe. We have read of a similar image of the Virgin Mary, called *Madre Dolorosa*, which was discovered by the French in the dungeons of the Spanish Inquisition.—B. The same kind of torture was inflicted in Germany in the middle ages, the implement being called “The Virgin,” and its application “the Virgin’s kiss.”—ED.

into a single volume: but as the former are found fatiguing from their prolixity, so the latter are unsatisfactory from the necessary brevity to which they are confined. It has been, therefore, our endeavour to give every fact its full scope, but at the same time to retrench all disgusting superfluity; to give every object the due proportion it ought to maintain in the general picture of mankind without crowding the canvass: such a history should, in one respect, resemble a well formed dictionary of arts and sciences; both should serve as a complete library of science or history to every man, except in his own profession, in which more particular tracts or explanations may be wanted. We flatter ourselves, therefore, that this will be found both concise and perspicuous, though it must be candidly confessed, that we sat down less desirous of making a succinct history than a pleasing one; we sought after elegance alone, but accidentally found conciseness in our pursuit.

But to attain a just elegance order was requisite; it was necessary in so complex a subject to be very careful both of the method and the connection. This is a point in which all writers of general history have usually vied with their predecessors, every last attempt discovering the defects in the former; and indeed, to do each justice, every last attempt seems to have been the best in this respect. Method, in very complex subjects, is one of those attainments which is gained only by the successive application of different talents to the same pursuit; it is mended by repeated effort, and refines as it flows; so that from the times of the first writer of this kind among the moderns that we remember, down to that of the late Universal History, published in fifty-four volumes, the distribution of the parts has gone on improving. It would therefore be the height of injustice not to acknowledge our obligations to those writers last-mentioned, for their assistance in this particular. We have, however, laid hold of every opportunity that offered of improvement, particularly by proscribing all such foreign matter as tended to lead the reader away from the principal subject. Uniformity in a work of this kind should be principally attended to: in a subject like this, consisting of heterogeneous parts that are at best

feebly held together, we should never render the connection still more feeble by the insinuation of new materials ; or, to express it in a different manner, where there is already danger of embarrassment from multitude, the introduction of foreign members would but necessarily increase the tumult. We hope, therefore, that the reader will here see the revolutions of empires without confusion, and trace arts and laws from one kingdom to another, without losing his interest in the narrative of their other transactions.

To attain these ends with greater certainty of success, we have taken care in some measure to banish that late, and we may add gothic, practice of using a multiplicity of notes ; a thing as much unknown to the ancient historians, as it is disgusting in the moderns. Balzac¹ somewhere calls vain erudition the baggage of antiquity : might we in turn be permitted to make an apothegm, we should call notes the baggage of a bad writer. Scarce any other reason has been assigned for this bad practice, but that if such were inserted into the body of the work, they might impede the rapidity of the narration. It is not easy, however, to conceive in what manner a reader is less interrupted, whose eye is invited down to the note at the bottom of the page, which was certainly placed there in order to be read, than he would be by a proper insertion of the same into the body of the work. Will they persuade us, that an animal will move with less care and swiftness who carries its load upon its back, than if he dragg'd it along at the tail ? It certainly argues a defect of method, or a want of perspicuity, when an author is thus obliged to write notes upon his own works ; and it may assuredly be said, that whoever undertakes to write a comment upon himself will for ever remain without a rival his own commentator. We have therefore lopt off such excrescences, though not to any degree of affectation ; as sometimes an acknowledged blemish may be admitted into works of skill, either to cover a greater defect, or to take a nearer course to beauty.

Having mentioned the danger of affectation, it may be

¹ This was Jean Louis Guez de Balsac, called the " grand épistolier : " b. 1594 : d. 1655.—ED.

proper to observe, that as this, of all defects, is most apt to insinuate itself into such a work, we have therefore been upon our guard against it. From the natural bias which every historian has to some favourite profession or science, he is apt to introduce phrases or topics drawn from thence upon every occasion, and thus not unfrequently tinctures a work otherwise valuable with absurdity. Ménage tells us of a chemist, who, writing a history, used upon every occasion the language of an adept, and brought all his allusions from the laboratory. Polybius, who was a soldier, has been reprehended for taking up too much time in the history of a siege, or the description of a battle. Guicciardini on the other hand, who was a secretary, has been tedious in disserting upon trifling treaties and dull negotiations.¹ In like manner, we have known writers, who, being somewhat acquainted with oriental languages, have filled a long history with long Arabic names and uncouth spellings. Were we disposed to the same affectations, it would have been easy enough, through the course of our work, to have written Mohammed for Mahomet, Tatar for Tartar, Wazir for Visier, or Timour for Tamerlane; we might even have outgone our predecessors, and have written Stamboul for Constantinople, or Ganga for Ganges, with true exotic propriety. But though we have the proper reverence for Arabic, and Malayan also, of which we profess our ignorance, we have thought it expedient to reject such peculiarities. For which reason, when we meet the name of an Arabian general at full length, we make no scruple of abridging his titles, or turning them into English. Thus, for instance, when an Arabian historian and his faithful copyists, in a late Universal History, assures us that Hâreth Ebn Talâtula led an army into the field, which by the temerity of Al Howaireth Ebn Nohaid Ebn Wahab Ebn Abd Ebn Kosa was utterly defeated, we thought less ceremony might be used with such an indifferent general, and simply mention Howaireth's folly and his defeat.² To be serious, innovation,

¹ See our author's review of Guicciardini's History, p. 388, vol. iv.—ED.

² Another instance of the preface writer's reference to *details*, which seems to show that he probably also had a hand in the History itself, as mentioned at pp. 135 and 142.—ED.

in a work of this nature, should by no means be attempted; those names and spellings which have been used in our language from time immemorial, ought to continue unaltered; for, like states, they acquire a sort of *jus diuturne possessionis*, as the civilians express it, however unjust their original claims might have been. Yet, how far we have reformed these defects of style, without substituting errors of our own, we leave the public to determine; for few writers are judges of themselves in this particular.

With respect to chronology and geography, the one of which fixes actions to time, while the other assigns them to place, we have followed the most approved methods among the moderns. All that was requisite in this was to preserve one system of each invariably, and permit such as chose to adopt the plans of others to rectify our deviations to their own standard. If actions and things are made to preserve their due distances of time and place mutually with respect to each other, it matters little as to the duration of them all with respect to eternity, or their situation with regard to the universe.

Thus much (perhaps some will think too much) we have thought proper to premise concerning a work which, however executed, has cost much labour and great expense. Had we for our judges the unbiassed and judicious alone, few words would have served, or even silence would have been our best address; but when it is considered that we have wrought for the public, that miscellaneous being, at variance with itself from the differing influence of pride, prejudice, or incapacity, a public already sated with attempts of this nature, and in a manner unwilling to find out merit till forced upon its notice, we hope to be pardoned for thus endeavouring to show where it is presumed we have had a superiority. A History of the World to the present time, at once satisfactory and succinct, calculated rather for use than curiosity, to be read rather than consulted, seeking applause from the reader's feelings, not from his ignorance of learning, or affectation of being thought learned; a history that may be purchased at an easy expense, yet that omits nothing material, delivered in a style correct yet familiar, was wanting in our language; and, though sensible of our own insuffi-

ciency, this defect we have attempted to supply. Whatever reception the present age or posterity may give this work, we rest satisfied with our own endeavours to deserve a kind one. The completion of our design has for some years taken up all the time which we could spare from other occupations, of less importance indeed to the public, but probably more advantageous to ourselves. We are unwilling therefore to dismiss this subject without observing that the labour of so great a part of life should at least be examined with candour, and not carelessly confounded in that multiplicity of daily publications which, being conceived without effort, are produced without praise, and sink without censure. Were he who now particularly entreats the reader's candid examination to mention the part he has had in this work himself, he is well convinced, and that without any affected modesty, that such a discovery would only show the superiority of his associates in this undertaking: but it is not from his friendship, or his praise, but from their former labours in the learned world, that they are to expect their reward. Whatever be the fate of this History, their reputation is in no danger, but will still continue rising; for they have found by its gradual increase already, that the approbation of folly is loud and transient; that of wisdom, still but lasting.¹

¹ Our text of this Preface is from the original edition of the 'History of the World,' 1764. Percy's version differs, and is not half so long. The latter appears to be from a first draft, or, seeing that it is headed "Introduction to a New History of the World, intended to have been published," &c., and addressed "To the Public," perhaps it was meant for an advertisement. The last lines, commencing "Were he who now," &c., are among the omissions of Percy's version. These are noteworthy as referring to Goldsmith's own work, and that of the other writers, upon the 'History.' Some think they indicate that our author assisted in the compilation generally. It seems likely that the entry of payment "Preface to 'Universal History,' £3 3s. 0d.," in the Newbery Mems. in our vol. i. (p. 481) refers to this Preface.—ED.

INTRODUCTION

TO

‘A SURVEY OF EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY.’

[This Introduction was first printed with the Prefaces in the Edinburgh edition of Goldsmith's Works, 1833. The compilation to which it belongs was issued by "T. Carnan and F. Newbery, Junr." 65, St. Paul's Churchyard, in 1776, two years after the author's death. It appeared in two vols. 8vo, and duly bore the author's name, "Oliver Goldsmith, M.B." It, however, was written piecemeal many years before. Probably the first volume was written about 1764. The publisher's advertisement to the two volumes when issued in 1776 has the following:—"The first volume of this work was printed off in the life-time of the author; the second after his death, the whole of the copy being put into the hands of the publisher long before that period." Though quite out of Goldsmith's line, the work is generally admitted to be his. This work must not be confounded with our author's translation of Formey's 'History of Philosophy,' published in 1766 by Francis Newbery, of Paternoster Row, and mentioned at p. 356, vol. iv., and also in the note on the three Newberies in the Appendix (art. I.) to the present volume. Both works figure in the memoranda of payments by John Newbery to Goldsmith (vol. i. p. 483) the 'Survey' being down for £60, and the 'Translation of Philosophy' for £20.—ED.]

IN order to explain all the appearances of nature, the ancients usually considered man as a being newly introduced into the world, ignorant of all he saw, and astonished with every object around him. In this great variety, the first efforts of such a being would be to procure subsistence, and, careless of the causes of things, to rest contented with their enjoyment.

The next endeavour of such a creature would be to know by what means he became blest with such a luxuriance of possession; he feels the grateful vicissitudes of day and night—perceives the difference of seasons—he finds some things noxious to his health, and others grateful to his appetite: he would therefore eagerly desire to be informed how these things assumed such qualities, and would himself, from want of experience, form some wild conjecture concerning them. He would, for instance, assert, as the primeval ancients have done, that the sun was made of red-hot iron, that at night it sunk into the sea to rest from

its journey ; that summer issued through a chasm made in the skies for that purpose : and in this manner he would account for every other appearance that excited his curiosity.

Succeeding observations would, however, soon contradict his first prejudices, and he would begin to treasure up a history of the changes, that every object served to work either upon himself or upon each other. Thus his mind would become stored with the appearances of natural bodies, and with useful observations upon their effects. The number of these observations would in time arise to a considerable amount, and this would once more induce him to reduce them into form ; and, by combining them, to arrive at their causes. From hence new systems would be erected, more plausible indeed than those already made by savage man, but still, from a want of a sufficient number of materials, extremely defective : so that fancy would be obliged to supply the greatest share of the fabric.

At length, after frequently experiencing the futility of system, man would be obliged to acknowledge his ignorance of the causes of most appearances, and now, grown more modest, would set himself down, not only to collect new observations, in order to enlarge his history of nature, but, in a manner, to torture nature by experiments, and oblige her to give up those secrets, which she had hitherto kept concealed. Several of these newly acquired observations being thus added to the former obvious amount, would at length form the groundwork of a system ; and, by comparing each part, and uniting the whole, man would at last begin to discover the simplicity of nature under all her seeming variety.

Such is the progress of natural philosophy in the human mind, which, from enjoyment, proceeds to conjecture ; from thence to observation of facts, which, from their paucity, give birth to hypothetical system, which is succeeded by experimental investigation, and this at length gives rise to the true experimental system, which, though still defective, is yet built upon the surest foundation.

Experimental philosophers, therefore, or those who endeavour to discover the hidden operations of nature, and find out new properties by trials made upon her, are the

only sect from whom any expectations are to be had of advancing this science, and making us intimately acquainted with whatever we see. We should leave to the Platonists their properties of number and geometrical figures; to the Peripatetics their privations, elementary virtues, occult qualities, sympathies, antipathies, and faculties; to the Mechanists their matter, motion, subtle particles, and actions of effluvia, and only follow where experience shall guide us.

The ancients seem to have been but little acquainted with the arts of making experiments for the investigation of natural knowledge. It is true, they treasured up numberless observations which nature offered to their view, or which chance might have given them an opportunity of seeing; but they seldom went farther than barely the natural history of every object: they seldom laboured, by variously combining natural bodies, if I may so express it, to create new appearances, in order to afford matter for speculation.

They were but little employed in thus diving into the secret recesses of nature: they read the book as it lay before them; but then they read with great assiduity. Many facts which they have advanced, and which had at first been denied by the moderns, have been afterwards found to be true. They only sought for such qualities in nature as might be useful to the arts. Little concerned as to satisfying mere curiosity, they considered it as an intellectual pleasure, and only sought to gratify it by mere intellectual speculations.

But whatever assistance they might have given to real philosophy, the obscure ages, which succeeded theirs, seemed not disposed to avail themselves of their researches. In these times of darkness, they rested perfectly satisfied with words instead of things,—adopted the vain speculations of antiquity, and added many more of their own. Yet, in the midst of this barbarous period, there arose a man, who seemed formed to enlighten his cotemporaries, if the darkness had not been too great for any single luminary to dispel. Roger Bacon, an Englishman and a monk of the twelfth century,¹ pursued the true method of investigating

¹ So in the original. It should be thirteenth century, Bacon having been born in 1214, and having died in 1292, or 1294.—ED.

nature: he even ventured to ridicule the unmeaning philosophy of Aristotle, or rather of his commentators; made several experiments in optics, chemistry, and every part of natural knowledge; and, even at that early period, found out the use of gunpowder. The only recompense he had from his ignorant cotemporaries was to be accused of magic, and to have his works despised by such as never read them, or were incapable of comprehending them if they had.

The remarkable men who succeeded Bacon in the pursuit of natural knowledge, studied it rather as chemists than philosophers: they applied themselves to the analyzation of particular bodies by fire, and to their uses in medicine, rather than to consider nature with a general view, to the discovery of the laws of her operations. Though they were rich in a variety of curious and useful discoveries, yet they knew nothing, for instance, of the laws of motion, or the properties of fluids, upon a knowledge of which the whole system of modern philosophy is founded.

The great man, to whom experimental philosophy next owed its obligations, was of the same name and the same country with the former. Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam, first discovered the general principles which were to serve as guides in the study of nature. He first proposed the usefulness of experiments alone, and hinted at several, which others afterwards made with success. He set out with taking a general survey of natural knowledge, divided it into its parts, enquired into the degree of perfection at that time attained by each. He considered philosophy as only an instrument, which made us better or happier; and, an enemy to all systems, exhorted men to study only what was useful. This great man having thus broke through many of the chains in which true science was bound, was still deterred from attempting others which prejudice and authority seemed to fasten.

In this review of experimental philosophy, Des Cartes must not be passed over, although mentioned rather for his fame than his services. He contributed not a little to explode the errors of scholastic philosophy; but, unfortunately, it was to substitute his own. Though he was very capable of reasoning closely, yet, to accommodate his

philosophy to the multitude, he drew up rather a romance than a system. Like all works that strike the imagination, it pleased while new ; but, wanting the basis of reason, the whole fabric has long since fallen to the ground. As his hypothesis, however, has been once embraced by the greatest part of Europe, and still continues to have its partisans, it may not be amiss to give the learner a superficial idea of it.

It is on all hands acknowledged, that the most obvious appearances in nature are those which are least understood. Why, for instance, a stone, when thrown upward, should fall to the ground back again, and not continue to go up to the skies, is one of those difficulties, which, though disregarded by the vulgar, has puzzled the philosophers of every age. To express it more philosophically,—the descent of bodies to the surface of the earth is a phenomenon long sought after without success, and for the cause of which Des Cartes thus attempted to account. We are certain, from astronomical observations, says he, that the earth turns continually round upon itself, like a top, with a very rapid motion, carrying with it every thing immediately attached to its surface. But, though the earth thus moves with great swiftness, yet there is diffused around it a very subtle matter, which, as it has less weight than the earth, has therefore much greater velocity, the lightest bodies being the most easily moved : so that this subtle matter whirls round the earth infinitely faster than the earth itself can move. If, therefore, a stone is thrown from the earth's surface upward into this subtle matter, it must soon be pressed downward by it to the earth again, in the same manner as if a person, in the midst of a whirlpool, should throw a plank from him into the surrounding current ; this plank would be soon driven back to him in the centre again by the circulating fluid, and he could never by such means get free. In this way every one of the planets may be considered with its vortex or whirlpool of subtle matter turning round it, and pressing all the bodies that are thrown upward back upon its surface. Besides these particular vortexes in which each moved, they were represented as having altogether one common vortex, which regulated their motions, and in this manner all their revolutions were in the

gross accounted for. An hypothesis thus formed by the fancy was liable to a thousand objections, which were drawn from experience. Each of these, the followers of Des Cartes endeavoured to answer, till at length the whole philosophical machine was found so much clogged, that it became utterly disregarded by its warmest asserters: they therefore quitted a fortress which they found could be assailed on every side with advantage.

But, notwithstanding all his errors, he diffused a passion for natural knowledge, and excited a spirit of enquiry, which insensibly spread itself over Europe. The academy of Cimento at Florence, Boyle, Mariotte, Torricelli, Huygens, and Pascal, all improved philosophy by producing new objects of speculation. The societies of London and Paris still farther enlarged the landmarks of the science, and adopted the experimental methods of investigating nature. Though they had not yet arrived at the true system of nature, yet they might justly be said to be on the road.

At length Newton appeared, who first effected what his predecessors had hitherto only aimed at; namely, the application of geometry to nature, and, by uniting experiments with mathematical calculations, discovered new laws of nature, in a manner at once precise, profound, and amazing. Whatever all his predecessors, from time immemorial, had handed down concerning this science does not amount to the tenth part of the discoveries of the English philosopher only. Equally conspicuous for his researches in optics as for his system of the world, he had the pleasure of seeing his countrymen at once seize the truths he revealed to mankind. France, for some years, rather through national prejudice than philosophical conviction, opposed his fame, and in their academies and universities continued to teach the opinions of their countryman Des Cartes.¹ Truth, however, at length prevailed: the contemporaries of Newton, who might have opposed his merits from envy, being deceased, the succeeding generations adopted his discoveries, and his system now prevails in every polite part of Europe.

Thus far we have seen experimental philosophy con-

¹ See the essay on Maupertius in the 'Bee,' vol. ii. p. 321, and elsewhere.—ED.

tinuing to improve ; but it will be but justice to observe, that the successors of Newton have not since his time made that rapid progress in this science that was once expected. This judicious philosopher knew precisely those parts of nature which admitted of geometrical applications. Nothing could be more happily conceived than his applying mathematical calculations to the heavenly bodies, upon which no natural experiments could be made, and the greatness of whose bulks and distances could more easily be measured by numbers, and conceal the minute deviations of nature from universal theorems.

His followers, much less judicious, have expected more from geometry than the art could grant ; and, by erroneous imitation, have applied it to parts of nature which are incapable of admitting mathematical calculations. Thus we have seen the force of muscular motion determined by numbers ; the velocity with which the blood circulates calculated with geometrical precision ; the fermentation of liquors has undergone the same scrutiny ; and the most inconstant appearances of nature have been determined with inflexible demonstration.

It would be absurd to deny the great use of geometry in natural enquiries ; but sure it may be said, without offence, that mathematicians expect more from its assistance than they have been hitherto able to find. If we expect to make discoveries in nature merely by the helps of geometry, it is probable we shall be disappointed, as this art is rather fitted to give precision to discoveries already made, than to conduct us to new. Though it may serve as a vehicle, through which to deliver our discoveries to others, yet it is seldom by this method that we have happened upon them ourselves.

However this may be, it is rather to accidental experiments, than to painful inductions, that we are indebted for the modern discoveries in this science. Electricity, magnetism, and congelation, have been rather the result of accident than of investigation. Of these we know but some of the properties ; nor have we any substantial theory as yet concerning them. In fact, mankind at last begin to perceive, that our knowledge of nature is much more limited than we lately imagined it to be. In the last age

it was fashionable to suppose, that we could satisfactorily account for every appearance around us: at present, the real philosopher seems to rest satisfied, that there is much in this science yet to be discovered, and that what he already knows bears no proportion to what remains unknown. He no longer, therefore, pretends to assign causes for all things, but waits till time, industry, or accident, shall bring new lights to guide the enquiry.¹

PREFACE

TO

'A COLLECTION OF POEMS FOR YOUNG LADIES, IN THREE PARTS; DEVOTIONAL, MORAL, AND ENTERTAINING: THE WHOLE BEING A COLLECTION OF THE BEST PIECES IN OUR LANGUAGE.'²

DR. FORDYCE'S excellent Sermons for Young Women, in some measure gave rise to the following compilation. In

¹ In Mr. Murray's Newbery MSS. (according to Prior) is a memorandum of books lent by his publisher to Goldsmith to help him in the completion of this 'Experimental Philosophy.' It runs as follows:—"Sent to Dr. Goldsmith, Sept. 11th, 1765, from Canbery [that is, Canonbury] House, the copy of the Philosophy to be revised with the Abbé Nollet's Philosophy, and to have an account added of Hale's Ventilation, together with the following books:—1, Pemberton's Newton, 4to.; 2, Two pamphlets of Mr. Franklin's on Electricity; 3, 1 of Ferguson's Astronomy, 4to.; 4, D'Alembert's Treatise of Fluids, 4to.; 5, Martin's Philosophy, 3 vols. 8vo.; 6, Ferguson's Lectures, ditto; 7, Helsham's, ditto; 8, Kiel's Introduction, ditto; 9, Kiel's Astronomy, ditto; 10, Nature Displayed, 7 vols. 12mo; 11, Nollet's Philosophy, 3 vols. 12mo."—ED.

² This collection was done for the publisher Payne, in 1766, and was published in December of that year. The first edition was anonymous; but Goldsmith's name duly appeared upon the title of "a new edition," published in 1770 by Davenhill, where also appeared, by way of motto, the following verse:—

" External Graces all decay ;
 Their Power is quickly past :
 A well-form'd Mind extends their Sway,
 And bids each Beauty last.

" ANONYM."

In the Percy memoir this collection is confounded with Goldsmith's 'Beauties of English Poesy' (see next Preface), in the compilation of

that work, where he so judiciously points out all the defects of female conduct, to remedy them, and all the proper studies which they should pursue, with a view to improvement, poetry is one to which he particularly would attach them. He only objects to the danger of pursuing this charming study through all the immoralities and false pictures of happiness with which it abounds, and thus becoming the martyr of innocent curiosity.

In the following compilation, care has been taken to select, not only such pieces as innocence may read without a blush, but such as will even tend to strengthen that innocence. In this little work, a lady may find the most exquisite pleasure, while she is at the same time learning the duties of life; and, while she courts only entertainment, be deceived into wisdom. Indeed, this would be too great a boast in the preface to any original work; but here it can be made with safety, as every poem in the following collection would singly have procured an author great reputation.

They are divided into Devotional, Moral, and Entertaining, thus comprehending the three great duties of life; that which we owe to God, to our neighbour, and to ourselves.

In the first part, it must be confessed, our English poets have not very much excelled. In that department, namely, the praise of our Maker, by which poetry began, and from which it deviated by time, we are most faultily deficient. There are one or two, however, particularly 'The Deity,' by Mr. Boyse; a poem which, when it first came out, lay for some time neglected, till introduced to public notice by Mr. Hervey and Mr. Fielding. In it the reader will perceive many striking pictures, and perhaps glow with a part of that gratitude which seems to have inspired the writer.¹

which he made the mistake of including two objectionable poems by Prior. See our 'Life,' pp. 29, 30.—ED.

¹ Samuel Boyse was the son of the Rev. Joseph Boyse, a dissenting minister located in Dublin. He was born in 1708, and died in 1749. 'The Deity,' his principal work, was published in 1740. It reached a third edition after his death. Cave induced this writer to come to London, where he wrote poems and other things for the *Gentleman's Magazine*. —ED.

In the moral part¹ I am more copious, from the same reason, because our language contains a large number of the kind. Voltaire, talking of our poets, gives them the preference in moral pieces to those of any other nation; and indeed no poets have better settled the bounds of duty, or more precisely determined the rules for conduct in life than ours. In this department, the fair reader will find the Muse has been solicitous to guide her, not with the allurements of a syren, but the integrity of a friend.

In the entertaining part, my greatest difficulty was what to reject. The materials lay in such plenty that I was bewildered in my choice: in this case, then, I was solely determined by the tendency of the poem; and where I found one, however well executed, that seemed in the least tending to distort the judgment, or inflame the imagination, it was excluded without mercy. I have here and there, indeed, when one of particular beauty offered with a few blemishes, lopt off the defects; and thus, like the tyrant who fitted all strangers to the bed he had prepared for them, I have inserted some by first adapting them to my plan. We only differ in this, that he mutilated with a bad design, I from motives of a contrary nature.

It will be easier to condemn a compilation of this kind, than to prove its inutility. While young ladies are readers, and while their guardians are solicitous that they shall only read the best books, there can be no danger of a work of this kind being disagreeable. It offers, in a very small compass, the very flowers of our poetry, and that of a kind adapted to the sex supposed to be its readers. Poetry is an art which no young lady can, or ought to be, wholly ignorant of. The pleasure which it gives, and indeed the necessity of knowing enough of it to mix in modern conversation, will evince the usefulness of my design, which is to supply the highest and most innocent entertainment at the smallest expense; as the poems in this collection, if sold singly, would amount to ten times the price of what I am able to afford the present.

¹ In this section Goldsmith gave his own 'Edwin and Angelina,' the text being that of the original as written for the Countess of Northumberland, and as given in our edition of the poems. —ED.

PREFACE

TO

‘THE BEAUTIES OF ENGLISH POESY, SELECTED BY
OLIVER GOLDSMITH,’ 1767.¹

MY bookseller having informed me that there was no collection of English poetry among us, of any estimation, I thought a few hours spent in making a proper selection would not be ill bestowed.

Compilations of this kind are chiefly designed for such as either want leisure, skill, or fortune, to choose for themselves; for persons whose professions turn them to different pursuits, or who, not yet arrived at sufficient maturity, require a guide to direct their application. To our youth, particularly, a publication of this sort may be useful; since, if compiled with any share of judgment, it may at once unite precept and example, show them what is beautiful, and inform them why it is so: I therefore offer this, to the best of my judgment, as the best collection that has as yet appeared; though, as tastes are various, numbers will be of a very different opinion. Many, perhaps, may wish to see in it the poems of their favourite authors; others may wish that I had selected from works less generally read; and others still may wish that I had selected from their own. But my design was to give a useful, unaffected compilation; one that might tend to

¹ Published in two volumes, by W. Griffin, who two years before had issued the first collected edition of Goldsmith's ‘Essays.’ Cooke retailed the story that Goldsmith was paid £200 for making this selection, though, as he puts it, “Here he did nothing but mark the particular passages with a red pencil.” Goldsmith, we are told by Prior, did not deny the story of the amount paid; but, when the magnitude of the payment was commented upon, “his usual reply in substance was: ‘Why, Sir, it may seem large; but then a man may be many years working in obscurity before his taste and reputation are fixed, or estimated, and then he is, as in other professions, only paid for his previous labours.’” Another and a more probable estimate of the payment is £50. ‘The Beauties of English Poesy’ was the collection spoilt by the inclusion of Matthew Prior’s ‘Hans Carvel’ and ‘The Ladle.’ See ‘Life,’ p. 29.—ED.

advance the reader's taste, and not impress him with exalted ideas of mine. Nothing is so common, and yet so absurd, as affectation in criticism. The desire of being thought to have a more discerning taste than others, has often led writers to labour after error, and to be foremost in promoting deformity.

In this compilation, I run but few risks of that kind: every poem here is well known, and possessed, or the public has been long mistaken, of peculiar merit; every poem has, as Aristotle expresses it, a beginning, a middle, and an end, in which, however trifling the rule may seem, most of the poetry in our language is deficient. I claim no merit in the choice, as it was obvious; for in all languages the best productions are most easily found. As to the short Introductory Criticisms to each poem, they are rather designed for boys than men; for it will be seen that I declined all refinement, satisfied with being obvious and sincere. In short, if this work be useful in schools, or amusing in the closet, the merit all belongs to others; I have nothing to boast, and at best can expect, not applause, but pardon.

OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

[INTRODUCTORY CRITICISMS.¹]

[VOL. I.]

THE RAPE OF THE LOCK.—This seems to be Mr. Pope's most finished production, and is, perhaps, the most perfect in our language. It exhibits stronger powers of imagination, more harmony of numbers, and a greater knowledge of the world, than any other of this poet's works; and it is probable, if our countrymen were called upon to show a specimen of their genius to foreigners, this would be the work fixed upon.

¹ These came severally at the head of each of the selected pieces. The author generally names the poet in his criticism. Where he does not, we give the name in a foot-note, though most of the pieces and their authors are well known.—ED.

THE HERMIT.—This poem is held in just esteem, the versification being chaste, and tolerably harmonious, and the story told with perspicuity and conciseness. It seems to have cost great labour, both to Mr. Pope,¹ and Parnell himself, to bring it to this perfection. It may not be amiss to observe, that the fable is taken from one of Dr. Henry Moore's Dialogues.²

IL PENSEROSO AND L'ALLEGRO.—I have heard a very judicious critic say, that he had a higher idea of Milton's style in poetry from the two following poems, than from his *Paradise Lost*. It is certain, the imagination shown in them is correct and strong. The introduction to both in irregular measure is borrowed from the Italians, and hurts an English ear.

AN ELEGY, WRITTEN IN A COUNTRY CHURCH-YARD.³—This is a very fine poem, but overloaded with epithet. The heroic measure, with alternate rhyme, is very properly adapted to the solemnity of the subject, as it is the slowest movement that our language admits of. The latter part of the poem is pathetic and interesting.

LONDON: In Imitation of the Third Satire of Juvenal.⁴—This poem of Mr. Johnson's is the best imitation of the original that has appeared in our language; being possessed of all the force and satirical resentment of Juvenal. Imitation gives us a much truer idea of the ancients than even translation could do.

THE SCHOOL-MISTRESS: In Imitation of Spenser.—This poem is one of those happinesses in which a poet excels himself, as there is nothing in all Shenstone which any way approaches it in merit; and though I dislike the imitations of our old English poets in general, yet, on this minute subject, the antiquity of the style produces a very ludicrous solemnity.

¹ Pope published Parnell's poems, and is supposed to have helped in more than one of them. See 'Life of Parnell,' p. 170, vol. iv.—ED.

² Dr. Henry More. See vol. iv. p. 176.—ED.

³ By Thomas Gray. For other criticisms of Gray by Goldsmith, see his review of the Odes (contributed to the *Monthly Review*, just ten years before the above was written), p. 296, vol. iv.; the Parnell memoir, p. 173, vol. iv.; and the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' p. 140, vol. i.—ED.

⁴ Dr. Johnson's first published poem. Samuel Johnson was LL.D. at this date, though Goldsmith merely terms him "Mr. Johnson."—ED.

COOPER'S HILL.—This poem by Denham, though it may have been exceeded by later attempts in description, yet deserves the highest applause, as it far surpasses all that went before it. The concluding part, though a little too much crowded, is very masterly.

ELOISA TO ABELARD.¹—The harmony of numbers in this poem is very fine. It is rather drawn out to too tedious a length, although the passions vary with great judgment. It may be considered as superior to any thing in the epistolary way; and the many translations which have been made of it into the modern languages are in some measure a proof of this.

AN EPISTLE FROM MR. PHILIPS TO THE EARL OF DORSET.²—The opening of this poem is incomparably fine. The latter part is tedious and trifling.

A LETTER FROM ITALY, TO CHARLES, LORD HALIFAX, 1701.³—Few poems have done more honour to English genius than this. There is in it a strain of political thinking that was, at that time, new in our poetry. Had the harmony of this been equal to that of Pope's versification, it would be incontestably the finest poem in our language; but there is a dryness in the numbers which greatly lessens the pleasure excited both by the poet's judgment and imagination.

ALEXANDER'S FEAST; OR THE POWER OF MUSIC. An Ode in Honour of St. Cecilia's Day.⁴—This ode has been more applauded, perhaps, than it has been felt; however, it is a very fine one, and gives its beauties rather at a third or fourth, than at a first perusal.

ODE FOR MUSIC ON ST. CECILIA'S DAY.⁵—This ode has by many been thought equal to the former. As it is a repetition of Dryden's manner, it is so far inferior to him. The whole hint of Orpheus, with many of the lines, have been taken from an obscure ode upon music, published in Tate's Miscellanies.⁶

THE SHEPHERD'S WEEK. In Six Pastorals.—These are

¹ By Pope.—ED.

² By Ambrose Philips.—ED.

³ By Addison.—ED.

⁴ By Dryden.—ED.

⁵ By Pope.—ED.

⁶ Goldsmith alludes to "A Pindaric Essay upon Musick" by "Mr. Wilson," which appeared at p. 401 of "Poems by Several Hands . . . Collected by N. Tate," 1685.—ED.

Mr. Gay's principal performance. They were originally intended, I suppose, as a burlesque on those of Philips; but, perhaps, without designing it, he has hit the true spirit of pastoral poetry. In fact, he more resembles Theocritus than any other English pastoral writer whatsoever. There runs through the whole a strain of rustic pleasantry, which should ever distinguish this species of composition; but how far the antiquated expressions used here may contribute to the humour, I will not determine; for my own part, I could wish the simplicity were preserved, without recurring to such obsolete antiquity for the manner of expressing it.

MAC FLECKNOE.¹—The severity of this satire, and the excellence of its versification, give it a distinguished rank in this species of composition. At present, an ordinary reader would scarce suppose that Shadwell, who is here meant by Mac Flecknoe, was worth being chastised; and that Dryden, descending to such game, was like an eagle stooping to catch flies. The truth, however, is, Shadwell at one time held divided reputation with this great poet. Every age produces its fashionable dunces, who, by following the transient topic, or humour, of the day, supply talkative ignorance with materials for conversation.

ON POETRY.—A Rhapsody.²—Here follows one of the best versified poems in our language, and the most masterly production of its author. The severity with which Walpole is here treated, was in consequence of that minister's having refused to provide for Swift in England, when applied to for that purpose, in the year 1725, if I remember right. The severity of a poet, however, gave Walpole very little uneasiness. A man whose schemes, like this minister's, seldom extended beyond the exigency of the year, but little regarded the contempt of posterity.³

OF THE USE OF RICHES.⁴—This poem, as Mr. Pope tells us himself, cost much attention and labour; and, from the easiness that appears in it, one would be apt to think as much.

FROM 'THE DISPENSARY.' Canto VI.—This sixth canto

¹ By Dryden.—ED.

² By Swift.—ED.

³ See also vol. iii. p. 503, and the note there.—ED.

⁴ Epistle III. of the 'Moral Essays' by Pope.—ED.

of the Dispensary, by Dr. Garth, has more merit than the whole preceding part of the poem, and, as I am told, in the first edition of this work, it is more correct than as here exhibited; but that edition I have not been able to find.¹ The praises bestowed on this poem are more than have been given to any other; but our approbation at present is cooler, for it owed part of its fame to party.

SELIM; or, THE SHEPHERD'S MORAL.²—The following eclogues, written by Mr. Collins, are very pretty: the images, it must be owned, are not very local; for the pastoral subject could not well admit of it. The description of Asiatic magnificence and manners is a subject as yet unattempted amongst us, and, I believe, capable of furnishing a great variety of poetical imagery.

THE SPLENDID SHILLING. By Mr. J. Philips.—This is reckoned the best parody of Milton in our language: it has been a hundred times imitated without success. The truth is, the first thing in this way must preclude all future attempts; for nothing is so easy as to burlesque any man's manner, when we are once showed the way.

A PIPE OF TOBACCO. In imitation of six several Authors.—Mr. Hawkins Browne, the author of these, as I am told, had no good original manner of his own, yet we see how well he succeeds when he turns an imitator; for the following are rather imitations than ridiculous parodies.

[VOL. II.]

A NIGHT PIECE ON DEATH.—The great fault of this piece, written by Dr. Parnell, is, that it is in eight-syllable

¹ Mr. Cunningham says upon this:—"Goldsmith is here mistaken. The revised and enlarged edition of 'The Dispensary' is a great improvement on the first edition. This was the opinion of Pope, from whose judgment in such matters it is seldom safe to differ."—ED.

² The other three of the 'Oriental Eclogues' were given also. Goldsmith was one of the few who praised the poems of Collins before that author died, in 1759. See p. 508, vol. iii., and the note. In the *Monthly Review* for June, 1757, is a review of the original issue of the 'Oriental Eclogues' (published anonymously). This article, though not among the pieces marked by Griffiths as written by Goldsmith, may have been by our author, as he was then engaged upon the *Review*.—ED.

lines, very improper for the solemnity of the subject ; otherwise, the poem is natural, and the reflections just.

A FAIRY TALE. By Dr. Parnell.—Never was the old manner of speaking more happily applied, or a tale better told than this.

PALEMON AND LAVINIA.—Mr. Thomson, though in general a verbose and affected poet, has told this story with unusual simplicity. It is rather given here for being much esteemed by the public than by the editor.¹

THE BASTARD.—Almost all things written from the heart, as this certainly was, have some merit. The poet here describes sorrows and misfortunes which were by no means imaginary ; and thus there runs a truth of thinking through this poem, without which it would be of little value, as Savage is, in other respects, but an indifferent poet.

THE POET AND HIS PATRON.²—Mr. Moore was a poet that never had justice done him while living. There are few of the moderns have a more correct taste, or a more pleasing manner of expressing their thoughts. It was upon these Fables he chiefly founded his reputation ; yet they are by no means his best production.

AN EPISTLE TO A LADY.—This little poem, by Mr. Nugent,³ is very pleasing. The easiness of the poetry, and the justice of the thoughts, constitute its principal beauty.

HANS CARVEL.—This bagatelle, for which, by the bye, Mr. Prior has got his greatest reputation, was a tale told in all the old Italian collections of jests, and borrowed from thence by Fontaine. It had been translated once or twice before into English, yet was never regarded till it fell into the hands of Mr. Prior. A strong instance how much every thing is improved in the hands of a man of genius.⁴

¹ See notes on Goldsmith and Thomson at vol. i. pp. 323, 406.—ED.

² By Edward Moore. 'The Poet and his Patron' is No. V. of Moore's 'Fables for the Ladies.' Goldsmith also gave Fables VI. and XVI., 'The Wolf, the Sheep, and the Lamb,' and 'The Female Seducers,' his criticism applying to the three selections.—ED.

³ Goldsmith's friend, Robert Nugent, afterwards Viscount Clare, to whom the 'Haunch of Venison' was addressed. See 'Poems,' pp. 46, 50, v. ii.—ED.

⁴ This sufficed to introduce 'Hans Carvel' and 'The Ladle,' both by Matthew Prior. Concerning these selections, see p. 29 of our 'Life ;'

BAUCIS AND PHILEMON. From Swift.—This poem is very fine, and, though in the same strain with the preceding, is yet superior.¹

TO THE EARL OF WARWICK, ON THE DEATH OF MR. ADDISON.—This elegy (by Mr. Tickell) is one of the finest in our language. There is so little new that can be said upon the death of a friend, after the complaints of Ovid, and the Latin Italians, in this way, that one is surprised to see so much novelty in this to strike us, and so much interest to affect.

COLIN AND LUCY. A Ballad.—Through all Tickell's works there is a strain of ballad-thinking, if I may so express it; and in this professed ballad he seems to have surpassed himself. It is, perhaps, the best in our language in this way.

THE TEARS OF SCOTLAND: Written in the Year 1746.—This ode, by Dr. Smollett, does rather more honour to the author's feelings than his taste. The mechanical part, with regard to numbers and language, is not so perfect as so short a work as this requires; but the pathetic it contains, particularly in the last stanza but one, is exquisitely fine.

ON THE DEATH OF THE LORD PROTECTOR.—Our poetry was not quite harmonized in Waller's time; so that this, which would be now looked upon as a slovenly sort of versification, was, with respect to the times in which it was written, almost a prodigy of harmony. A modern reader will chiefly be struck with the strength of thinking, and the turn of the compliments bestowed upon the usurper. Every body has heard the answer our poet made Charles II., who asked him how his poem upon Cromwell came to be finer than his panegyric upon himself? "Your Majesty," replies Waller, "knows that poets always succeed best in fiction."

THE STORY OF PHŒBUS AND DAPHNE APPLIED.²—The French claim this as belonging to them. To whomsoever it belongs, the thought is finely turned.

also p. 150, *ante*, note 2. 'The Ladle' is likewise alluded to, by way of comparison, in the next criticism.—ED.

¹ "The preceding" selection was Mat. Prior's 'Ladle,' as mentioned in the last note.—ED.

² No. XVI. of the 'Miscellanies' of Edmund Waller.—ED.

NIGHT THOUGHTS: By Dr. Young.—These seem to be the best of the collection; from whence only the two first are taken. They are spoken of differently, either with exaggerated applause or contempt, as the reader's disposition is either turned to mirth or melancholy.

SATIRE I.—Young's Satires were in higher reputation when published than they stand in at present. He seems fonder of dazzling than pleasing; of raising our admiration for his wit, than our dislike of the follies he ridicules.

A PASTORAL BALLAD: In Four Parts.—These ballads of Mr. Shenstone are chiefly commended for the natural simplicity of the thoughts, and the harmony of the versification. However, they are not excellent in either.

PHŒBE. A Pastoral.¹—This, by Dr. Byrom, is a better effort than the preceding.

A SONG. ['Despairing beside a clear stream.']—This, by Mr. Rowe, is better than any thing of the kind in our language.

AN ESSAY ON POETRY.—This work, by the Duke of Buckingham, is enrolled among our great English productions. The precepts are sensible, the poetry not indifferent, but it has been praised more than it deserves.

CADENUS AND VANESSA.—This is thought one of Dr. Swift's correctest pieces; its chief merit, indeed, is the elegant ease with which a story, but ill-conceived in itself, is told.

ALMA; OR, THE PROGRESS OF THE MIND.—

Πάντα γέλως, καὶ πάντα κόνις, καὶ πάντα τὸ μηδέν.
Πάντα γὰρ ἐξ ἀλόγων ἐστὶ τὰ γιγνόμενα.—

What Prior meant by this poem I can't understand: by the Greek motto to it one would think it was either to laugh at the subject or his reader. There are some parts of it very fine; and let them save the badness of the rest.

¹ This is merely titled 'A Pastoral' in John Byrom's works.—ED.

PREFACE

TO

‘THE ROMAN HISTORY; FROM THE FOUNDATION OF THE CITY OF ROME TO THE DESTRUCTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.’ 2 vols. 8vo. S. Baker and G. Leigh, T. Davies, &c., 1769.¹

THERE are some subjects on which a writer must decline all attempts to acquire fame, satisfied with being obscurely useful. After such a number of Roman histories, in almost all languages, ancient and modern, it would be but imposture to pretend new discoveries, or to expect to offer any thing in a work of this kind which has not been often anticipated by others. The facts which it relates have been a hundred times repeated, and every occurrence has been so variously considered, that learning can scarce find a new anecdote, or genius give novelty to the old.

I hope, therefore, for the reader's indulgence, if, in the following attempt, it shall appear, that my only aim was to supply a concise, plain, and unaffected narrative of the rise and decline of a well known empire; I was contented to make such a book as could not fail of being serviceable, though of all others the most unlikely to promote the reputation of the writer. Instead, therefore, of pressing forward among the ambitious, I only claim the merit of knowing my own strength, and falling back among the hindmost ranks, with conscious inferiority.

I am not ignorant, however, that it would be no difficult task to pursue the same arts by which many dull men, every day, acquire a reputation in history: such might easily be attained, by fixing on some obscure period to write upon, where much seeming erudition might be displayed, almost unknown, because not worth remembering; and many maxims in politics might be advanced, entirely new, because

¹ For Dr. Johnson's opinion of this work, and of our author's other Histories, for their success, &c., see ‘Life,’ pp. 28, 29, and also the ‘Letters,’ vol. i. pp. 485, 486.—ED.

altogether false. But I have pursued a contrary method, choosing the most noted period in history, and offering no remarks, but such as I thought strictly true.

The reasons of my choice were, that we had no history of this splendid period in our language, but what was either too voluminous for common use, or too meanly written to please. Catrou and Rouille's history, in six volumes, folio, translated into our language by Bundy, is entirely unsuited to the time and expense mankind usually choose to bestow upon this subject. Rollin and his continuator Crevier, making above thirty volumes octavo, seem to labour under the same imputation; as likewise Hooke, who has spent three quartos upon the Republic alone, the rest of his undertaking remaining unfinished.¹ There only, therefore, remained the history by Echard, in five volumes octavo, whose plan and mine seemed to coincide; and, had his execution been equal to his design, it had precluded the present undertaking. But the truth is, it is so poorly written, the facts so crowded, the narration so spiritless, and the characters so indistinctly marked, that the most ardent curiosity must cool in the perusal, and the noblest transactions that ever warmed the human heart, as described by him, must cease to interest.

I have endeavoured, therefore, in the present work (or rather compilation) to obviate the inconveniencies arising from the exuberance of the former, as well as from the unpleasantness of the latter. It was supposed, that two volumes might be made to comprize all that was requisite to be known, or pleasing to be read, by such as only examined history to prepare them for more important studies. Too much time may be given even to laudable pursuits, and there is none more apt than this to allure the student from more necessary branches of learning, and, if I may so express it, entirely to engross his industry. What is here offered, therefore, may be sufficient for all, but such as make history the peculiar business of their lives: To such, the most tedious narrative will seem but an abridgment, as they measure the merits of a work, rather by the quantity

¹ Only three vols. of N. Hooke's 'History of Rome' were published when this preface was written. The fourth appeared in 1771; but this only brought the narrative down to the end of the Republic.—ED.

than the quality of its contents. Others, however, who think more soberly, will agree, that in so extensive a field as that of the transactions of Rome, more judgment may be shown by selecting what is important, than by adding what is obscure. The history of this empire has been extended to six volumes folio; and I aver, that with very little learning, it might be increased to sixteen more; but what would this be, but to load the subject with unimportant facts, and so to weaken the narration, that, like the empire it described, it must necessarily sink beneath the weight of its own acquisitions?

But while I thus have endeavoured to avoid prolixity, it was found no easy matter to prevent crowding the facts, and to give every narrative its proper play. In reality, no art can contrive¹ to avoid opposite defects; he who indulges in minute particularities will be often languid; and he who studies conciseness will as frequently be dry and unenterprising. As it was my aim to comprize as much as possible in the smallest compass, it is feared the work will often be subject to the latter imputation; but it was impossible to furnish the public with a cheap Roman History in two volumes octavo, and at the same time to give all that warmth to the narrative, all those colourings to the description, which works of twenty times the bulk have room to exhibit. I shall be fully satisfied, therefore, if it furnishes an interest sufficient to allure the reader to the end; and this is a claim to which few abridgments can justly make pretensions.

To these objections there are some who may add, that I have rejected many of the modern improvements in Roman History, and that every character is left in full possession of that fame or infamy which it obtained from its cotemporaries, or those who wrote immediately after. I acknowledge the charge, for it appears now too late to rejudge the virtues or the vices of those men, who were but very incompletely known even to their own historians. The Romans, perhaps, upon many occasions, formed wrong ideas of virtue; but they were by no means so ignorant or abandoned in general, as not to give their brightest cha-

¹ The first edition had "continue."—ED.

racters the greatest share of their applause ; and I do not know whether it be fair to try Pagan actions by the standard of Christian morality.

But whatever may be my execution of this work, I have very little doubt about the success of the undertaking : the subject is the noblest that ever employed human attention ; and, instead of requiring a writer's aid, will even support him with its splendour. The Empire of the World, rising from the meanest origin, and growing great by a strict veneration for religion, and an implicit confidence in its commanders ; continually changing the mode, but seldom the spirit of its government ; being a constitution, in which the military power, whether under the name of citizens or soldiers, almost always prevailed ; adopting all the improvements of other nations with the most indefatigable industry, and submitting to be taught by those whom it afterwards subdued. This is a picture that must affect us, however it be disposed ; these materials must have their value, under the hand of the meanest workman.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO

‘ DR. GOLDSMITH’S ROMAN HISTORY ABRIDGED BY
HIMSELF FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.’

THE present Abridgment was suggested by the heads of some of our principal schools. It was thought that the substance of the Roman History, thrown into easy *narrative*, would excite the curiosity of youth much more agreeably than in the common dry mode of *Question and Answer* ; calculated to turn into *task* a species of instruction meant certainly for entertainment.

[This was the famous history that has served generations as a school-book (as, indeed, have severally the abridgments of Goldsmith’s ‘Greece’ and ‘England’). It was first published in 1772, and, like the history in two vols. which it epitomized, bore the imprint of “S. Baker and G. Leigh, in York Street ; T. Davies, in Russel Street, Covent Garden,”

&c. Baker and Leigh's, in York Street, Covent Garden, afterwards became Leigh's the book auctioneer's, then, removed to the Strand, and afterwards to the newly-made Wellington Street, it was Leigh and Sotheby's. It is now the famous auctioneering firm of literary property, Messrs. Sotheby, Wilkinson, and Hodge. The imprint of the "New edition" of Goldsmith's school 'History of Rome' for 1796, discloses as publishers Messrs. Leigh and Sotheby, Scatchard and Whitaker, Wilkie, Richardson, Murray, Rivington, and Lee. The house of Whittaker (long of Ave Maria Lane, and now of White Hart Street) has ever since published this and the other school histories of our author, and, from first to last, must have issued literally hundreds of editions.—ED.]

PREFACE

TO

'THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND, FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES
TO THE DEATH OF GEORGE II.' 4 vols. 8vo. 1771.¹

FROM the favourable reception given to my Abridgment of Roman History,² published some time since, several friends, and others, whose business leads them to consult the wants of the public, have been induced to suppose that an English History written on the same plan would be acceptable. It was their opinion, that we still wanted a work of this kind, where the narrative, though very concise, is not totally without interest, and the facts, though crowded, are yet distinctly seen.

The business of abridging the works of others has hitherto fallen to the lot of very dull men; and the art of blotting, which an eminent critic calls the most difficult of all others, has been usually practised by those who found themselves unable to write. Hence, our abridgments are generally more tedious than the works from which they pretend to relieve us; and they have effectually embarrassed that road which they laboured to shorten.

As the present compiler starts with such humble com-

¹ Written between 1769 and 1771 for T. Davies, who engaged Goldsmith for the task within three weeks of the commencement of the successful career of the 'Roman History.'—ED.

² This would be the 'Roman History' in two vols., not the school abridgment of it. The latter was not published till 1772.—ED.

petitors, it will scarcely be thought vanity in him if he boasts himself their superior. Of the many abridgments of our own history hitherto published, none seems possessed of any share of merit or reputation; some have been written in dialogue, or merely in the stiffness of an index, and some to answer the purposes of a party. A very small share of taste, therefore, was sufficient to keep the compiler from the defects of the one, and a very small share of philosophy from the misrepresentations of the other.

It is not easy, however, to satisfy the different expectations of mankind in a work of this kind, calculated for every apprehension, and on which all are consequently capable of forming some judgment. Some may say that it is too long to pass under the denomination of an abridgment; and others, that it is too dry to be admitted as a history: it may be objected, that reflection is almost entirely banished to make room for facts, and yet, that many facts are wholly omitted, which might be necessary to be known. It must be confessed, that all these objections are partly true; for it is impossible in the same work, at once, to attain contrary advantages. The compiler, who is stinted in room, must often sacrifice interest to brevity; and, on the other hand, while he endeavours to amuse, must frequently transgress the limits to which his plan should confine him. Thus, all such as desire only amusement may be disgusted with his brevity; and such as seek for information, may object to his displacing facts for empty description.

To attain the greatest number of advantages with the fewest inconveniencies, is all that can be attained in an abridgment, the very name of which implies imperfection. It will be sufficient, therefore, to satisfy the writer's wishes, if the present work be found a plain, unaffected narrative of facts, with just ornament enough to keep attention awake, and with reflection barely sufficient to set the reader upon thinking. Very moderate abilities were equal to such an undertaking, and it is hoped the performance will satisfy such as take up books to be informed or amused, without much considering who the writer is, or envying him any success he may have had in a former compilation.

As the present publication is designed for the benefit of those who intend to lay a foundation for future study, or desire to refresh their memories upon the old, or who think a moderate share of history sufficient for the purposes of life, recourse has been had only to those authors which are best known, and those facts only have been selected which are allowed on all hands to be true. Were an epitome of history the field for displaying erudition, the author could show that he has read many books which others have neglected, and that he also could advance many anecdotes which are at present very little known. But it must be remembered, that all these minute recoveries could be inserted only to the exclusion of more material facts, which it would be unpardonable to omit. He foregoes, therefore, the petty ambition of being thought a reader of forgotten books; his aim being not to add to our present stock of history, but to contract it.

The books which have been used in this abridgment are chiefly Rapin, Carte, Smollett, and Hume.¹ They have each their peculiar admirers, in proportion as the reader is studious of historical antiquities, fond of minute anecdote, a warm partisan, or a deliberate reasoner. Of these I have particularly taken Hume for my guide, as far as he goes; and it is but justice to say, that wherever I was obliged to abridge his work, I did it with reluctance, as I scarce cut out a single line that did not contain a beauty.

But, though I must warmly subscribe to the learning, elegance, and depth of Mr. Hume's History, yet I cannot

¹ "Conversation" Cooke, in one of his "Table Talk" articles in the *European Magazine*, Aug., 1793, p. 94 (not the *Gentleman's Magazine*, as Prior states), gives the following account of Goldsmith's method of writing history—or rather of how the 'History of England in Letters from a Nobleman,' &c., was written. "He first read in a morning, from Hume, Rapin, and sometimes Kennet, as much as he designed for one letter, marking down the passages referred to on a sheet of paper, with remarks. He then rode or walked out with a friend or two, who he constantly had with him, returned to dinner, spent the day generally convivially, without much drinking (which he was never in the habit of), and when he went up to bed took up his books and papers with him, where he generally wrote the chapter, or the best part of it, before he went to rest." The larger 'History of England' was in a great measure written upon the lines laid down in the previously published history in 'Letters from a Nobleman.'—ED.

entirely acquiesce in his principles. With regard to religion, he seems desirous of playing a double part; of appearing to some readers as if he revered, and to others as if he ridiculed it. He seems sensible of the political necessity of religion in every state; but at the same time, he would every where insinuate, that it owes its authority to no higher an origin. Thus he weakens its influence, while he contends for its utility; and vainly hopes, that while free-thinkers shall applaud his scepticism, real believers will reverence him for his zeal.¹

In his opinions respecting government, perhaps, also, he may be sometimes reprehensible; but in a country like ours, where mutual contention contributes to the security of the constitution, it will be impossible for an historian, who attempts to have any opinion, to satisfy all parties. It is not yet decided in politics, whether the diminution of kingly power in England tends to increase the happiness or the freedom of the people. For my own part, from seeing the bad effects of the tyranny of the great in those republican states that pretend to be free, I cannot help wishing that our monarchs may still be allowed to enjoy the power of controlling the encroachments of the great at home. A king may easily be restrained from doing wrong, as he is but one man; but if a number of the great are permitted to divide all authority, who can punish them if they abuse it? Upon this principle therefore, and not from any empty notion of divine or hereditary right, some may think I have leaned towards monarchy. But as, in the things I have hitherto written, I have neither allured the vanity of the great by flattery, nor satisfied the malignity of the vulgar by scandal, as I have endeavoured to get an honest reputation by liberal pursuits, it is hoped the reader will admit my impartiality.²

¹ For an earlier view of Hume, see 'The Bee,' p. 393, vol. ii.—ED.

² See the notes on the 'History of England' and its reception in our Appendix (art. II.) to these Prefaces; and Judge Day's 'Reminiscences of Goldsmith' in art. I. of the same Appendix.—ED.

[INTRODUCTION TO]

THE GRECIAN HISTORY. 2 vols. 8vo. 1774,

[Properly speaking there was no "Introduction" to the 'Grecian History From the Earliest State to the Death of Alexander the Great, by Dr. Goldsmith.' This was no doubt due to the fact that the work was only completed on the eve of the author's death. The following, therefore, is simply the introductory portion of Chapter I. of the History itself. Percy thought the work was not Goldsmith's, as we have mentioned in our 'Life,' vol. i. p. 28; but the following advertisement, the opinions of most of the authorities, Goldsmith's receipt for the £250 paid for the work (given at p. 486 of our vol. i.), and the internal evidences of style, &c., seem to turn the balance of proof the other way. Perhaps the most conclusive evidence in favour of Goldsmith's authorship is furnished by the concluding paragraph of the following portion of Chapter I. The figure of the futility of "continuing the chase," &c., is given in almost the same words as those used by Goldsmith three years earlier in his 'Life of Parnell:' see vol. iv. p. 159. Here is the publishers' advertisement of the 'Grecian History' when it was first issued, in June, 1774.—"ADVERTISEMENT.—The applause bestowed on the 'Roman History,' written by Dr. Goldsmith, induced that gentleman to complete his plan by writing a History of Greece. The work was printed off when the Republic of Letters was deprived of one of its brightest ornaments. Since the author's decease, the work has been perused by several of his learned friends, who are of opinion that it has an equal claim to that approbation which the 'Roman History' received from the public." The 'Grecian History' was published by J. and F. Rivington, T. Longman, Kearsley, Griffin, and others, in June, 1774.—ED.]

CHAP. I.

Of the earliest State of Greece.

THE first notices we have of every country are fabulous and uncertain. Among an unenlightened people every imposture is likely to take place, for ignorance is the parent of credulity. Nothing therefore which the Greeks have transmitted to us concerning their earliest state can be relied on. Poets were the first who began to record the actions of their countrymen, and it is a part of their art to strike the imagination even at the expense of probability. For this reason, in the early accounts of Greece we are

presented with the machinations of gods and demigods, the adventures of heroes and giants, the ravages of monsters and dragons, and all the potency of charms and enchantments. Man, plain historical man, seems to have no share in the picture, and while the reader wanders through the most delightful scenes the imagination can offer, he is scarce once presented with the actions of such a being as himself.

It would be vain, therefore, and beside the present purpose, to give an historical air to accounts which were never meant to be transmitted as true. Some writers, indeed, have laboriously undertaken to separate the truth from the fable, and to give us an unbroken narrative from the first dawning of tradition to the display of undoubted history; they have levelled down all mythology to their own apprehensions, every fable is made to look with an air of probability. Instead of a golden fleece, Jason goes in pursuit of a great treasure; instead of destroying a chimera, Belerophon reclaims a mountain; instead of an hydra, Hercules overcomes a robber.

Thus the fanciful pictures of a strong imagination are taught to assume a serious severity, and tend to deceive the reader still more by offering in the garb of truth what had been only meant to delight and allure him.

The fabulous age, therefore, of Greece must have no place in history; it is now too late to separate these parts which may have a real foundation in nature from those which owe their existence wholly to the imagination. There are no traces left to guide us in that intricate pursuit; the dews of the morning are past, and it is vain to attempt continuing the chase in meridian splendour.¹

¹ Connected with the writing of this history is the anecdote of Goldsmith and Gibbon—not then known as the historian of the ‘Decline and Fall’ of Rome—which used to be told by the antiquary, Dawson Turner. We quote the story from Prior (‘Life,’ vol. ii. p. 435), who says he had it from Dawson himself:—“While engaged at his desk in composing the concluding portion of the work, Gibbon called upon him in the Temple, when, after the usual preliminary salutations, the poet observed, ‘You are the very person of all others I wish to see. I am writing a History of Greece, and I have been taxing my recollection in vain for the name of that Indian king who gave Alexander so much trouble.’ Gibbon, amused at his perplexity, and inclined to jest with it, or to punish his

indolence in not referring to authorities, replied with an inward chuckle, 'Oh, I can settle that point in a moment; it was Montezuma.' 'You are right, no doubt,' said the absent poet, after a moment's hesitation, as if he nevertheless entertained some doubt, and wrote it down. Gibbon, however, believing that the jest might actually go forth in sober earnest, would not permit it to stand, but seemingly recollecting himself, exclaimed, after a short pause, 'Oh, no, I mistake; I meant to say Porus, not Montezuma.'" See also Article I. of the following Appendix, where Judge Day has some account of the writing of Goldsmith's Histories.—ED.

APPENDIX TO THIS EDITION OF THE PREFACES.

I. JUDGE DAY'S REMINISCENCES OF GOLDSMITH.

As bearing upon Goldsmith's 'Grecian History,' and perhaps also upon his 'Roman History,' the following letter from Judge Day to Prior may be acceptable. Prior printed it at pp. 357-362 of vol. ii. of his 'Life of Goldsmith,' 1837. "A few further anecdotes of him from another quarter," says Prior, "belong chiefly to this period" [*i.e.* 1770-1773]. They come from the venerable Judge Day, now retired from the Irish Bench, whose hospitalities at Loughtinstown House in the vicinity of Dublin, being enlivened by several anecdotes of the poet, he, at the request of the writer, committed them to paper; and, with a few circumstances added afterwards, will appear best in his own words:—

"Loughtinstown House, 20th Feb., 1831.

"DEAR SIR :—I first became acquainted with Goldsmith in 1769, the year I entered the Middle Temple, where he had chambers; it was through the introduction of my friend and namesake Mr., afterwards Sir John Day, who subsequently became Judge-Advocate General in Bengal.

"The poet frequented much the Grecian Coffee-house, then the favourite resort of the Irish and Lancashire Templars; and delighted in collecting around him his friends, whom he entertained with a cordial and unostentatious hospitality. Occasionally he amused them with his flute or with whist, neither of which he played well, particularly the latter, but in losing his money he never lost his temper. In a run of bad luck and worse play, he would fling his cards upon the floor, and exclaim, '*Bye-fare* George, I ought for ever to renounce thee, fickle, faithless, Fortune!'

"In person he was short, about five feet five or six inches; strong, but not heavy in make; rather fair in complexion, with brown hair, such at least as could be distinguished from his wig. His features were plain, but not repulsive,—certainly not so when lighted up by conversation. His manners were simple, natural, and perhaps, on the whole, we may

say not polished, at least without that refinement and good breeding which the exquisite polish of his compositions would lead us to expect. He was always cheerful and animated, often, indeed, boisterous in his mirth; entered with spirit into convivial society; contributed largely to its enjoyments by solidity of information and the naïveté and originality of his character; talked often without premeditation, and laughed loudly without restraint.

“Being then a young man, I felt myself much flattered by the notice of so celebrated a person. He took great delight in the conversation and society of Grattan, whose brilliancy in the morning of life furnished full earnest of the unrivalled splendour which awaited his meridian; and finding us dwelling together in Essex Court, near himself, where he frequently visited my immortal friend, his warm heart became naturally prepossessed towards the associate of one whom he so much admired.

“Just arrived as I then was from college, full freighted with academic gleanings, our author did not disdain to receive from me some opinions and hints towards his Greek and Roman¹ histories, light and superficial works, not composed for fame, but compiled for the more urgent purpose of recruiting his exhausted finances. So, in truth, was his ‘Animated Nature.’ His purse replenished by labours of this kind, the season of relaxation and pleasure took its turn, in attending the theatres, Ranelagh, Vauxhall, and other scenes of gaiety and amusement, which he continued to frequent as long as his supply held out. He was fond of exhibiting his muscular little person in the gayest apparel of the day, to which was added a bag wig and sword.

“This favourite costume involved him one morning in a short but comical dialogue in the Strand with two coxcombs, one of whom, pointing to Goldsmith, called to his companion, in allusion to the poet’s sword, ‘to look at that fly with a long pin stuck through it.’ Goldsmith instantly cautioned the passengers against ‘that brace of disguised pick-pockets;’ and having determined to teach those gentlemen that he wore a sword as well for defence from insolence as for ornament, he retired from the footpath into the coachway, which admitted of more space and freedom of action, and, half drawing his sword, beckoned to the witty gentleman, armed in like manner, to follow him; but he and his companion, thinking prudence the better part of valour, declined the invitation, and sneaked away amid the hootings of the spectators.

“Whenever his funds were dissipated, and they fled more rapidly from being the dupe of many artful persons, male and female, who practised upon his benevolence, he returned to his literary labours, and shut

¹ Here, probably, there is an error. The Roman History must have been in the press previous to the commencement of the acquaintance.—PRIOR. [The date of the first edition of the ‘Roman History’ is 1769. The second edition appeared in 1770, and the third in 1775. The author’s abridgment of this history first appeared in 1772, see *ante*, p. 165. Perhaps Day helped in the latter, or in the second or third edition of the large history. The ‘Grecian History’ was only completed a little before Goldsmith’s death, and was not published until after that event. See *ante*, p. 170.—ED.]

himself up from society to provide fresh matter for the bookseller, and fresh supplies for himself.

“I was in London when the ‘Deserted Village’ came out. Much had been expected from the author of the ‘Traveller,’ and public expectation and impatience were not disappointed. In fact it was received with universal admiration, as one of the most fascinating and beautiful effusions of British genius.

“His beautiful little ‘Hermit,’ which by some persons had been fathered upon Johnson, and reputed to have been given by him to his *protégé* to help the ‘Vicar of Wakefield’ into popularity, was by this time restored to the owner by the public, who had discovered ere now that he excelled in the art of poetry even his eminent patron.¹

“His broad comedy, ‘She Stoops to Conquer,’ was received with scarcely less applause, though his friends Garrick and Colman had many misgivings of its success. His friends, of whom I was one, assembled in great force in the pit to protect it; but we had no difficulty to encounter; for it was received throughout with the greatest acclamations, and had afterwards a great run.

“I was also among those who attended his funeral, along with my friend John Day, Hugh Kelly, and a few others who were summoned together rather hastily for the purpose. It had been intended that this ceremony should be of an imposing kind, and attended by several of the great men of the time, Burke, Reynolds, Garrick, and others. This determination was altered, I imagine, from the pecuniary embarrassments of the deceased poet; the last offices were therefore performed in a private manner, without the attendance of his great friends. He was interred in the Temple burial-ground. Hugh Kelly, with whom he had not been on terms of intercourse for some years, shed tears over his grave, which were no doubt sincere; he did not then know that he had been slightly mentioned in ‘Retaliation;’ nor would he have been so noticed there, could the deceased have anticipated this proof of good feeling. Slight circumstances often separate even the most deserving persons; nor are they perhaps conscious of the worth of each other until accidental circumstances produce the discovery. I have the honour (in great haste) to be, dear Sir,

“Your faithful and obedient servant,
“ROB. DAY.

“I have been in town almost ever since I had the pleasure of receiving your memorandum; and beg pardon for sending you so slovenly and hurried an answer to it. Some things have no doubt escaped my notice at present which may hereafter occur to recollection.”

¹ Here we have another instance of matter included in Goldsmith’s works being attributed to Dr. Johnson. See our notes on the alleged Johnson lines in the ‘Traveller’ and ‘Deserted Village,’ vol. ii. pp. 19, 45, 141, and on the essay ‘The Bravery of the English Common Soldier,’ vol. iii. pp. 457-8, &c.—ED.

II. GOLDSMITH'S HISTORY OF ENGLAND: LETTERS OF GENERAL
OGLETHORPE AND "TOM" PAINE TO THE AUTHOR.

The favourable reception accorded to the first edition of our author's 'History of England' (4 vols. 8vo. 1771) was not unmixed with severer criticism from the politicians. And it is to the latter criticism we owe, perhaps, the most explicit statement we have of Goldsmith's political opinions, that statement, namely, which occurs in the letter to Langton, of Sept. 7, 1771 (see the Letters in vol. i. p. 462). He here says, "I have been a good deal abused in the newspapers for betraying the liberties of the people. God knows I had no thought for or against liberty in my head; my whole aim being to make up a book of a decent size, that, as 'Squire Richard says, would do no harm to nobody. However, they set me down as an arrant Tory, and consequently an honest man. When you come to look at any part of it [the 'History of England'], you'll say that I am a sour Whig." Prior tells us that, "He was accused of being unfriendly to liberty, of wishing to elevate monarchy beyond its proper sphere in a free constitution, of not giving due credit to some of the leaders of the Revolution, and of censuring the conduct of Lord Chief Justice Holt on occasion of the trial of Sir John Friend and Sir William Perkins, where the historian makes the judge to have acted 'rather as counsel against the prisoners than as a solicitor in their favour,'" and so, as the historian further says, "influenced the jury to find them guilty."¹ One of the attacks of the newspapers, though it occurred three days later than the date of the letter to Bennet Langton, was signed "Brunswick," and appeared in the *Gazetteer and New Daily Advertiser*. This perhaps is the attack of "the Zoilus" which General Oglethorpe mentions in the following letter to Goldsmith:—

"FROM GENERAL OGLETHORPE.

[Percy, 1801, i. 95.]

"How just, Sir, were your observations, that the poorest objects were by extreme poverty deprived of the benefit of hospitals erected for the relief of the poorest.

"Extreme poverty, which should be the strongest recommendation to charity, is here the insurmountable objection which leaves the distressed to perish.

"The qualifying such objects to receive the benefit of hospitals answers the intentions of the intended society. The design is the immediate relief from perishing; thereby giving time and protection to get proper destinations. And this of being admitted into an hospital is a proper destination.

¹ Friend and Perkins were tried and executed in 1696 for complicity in one of the Pretender's plots—or one of the plots in behalf of the Pretender—against the life of William III.—ED.

“ You were so good as to offer to distribute such sums as should be sent to you.

“ At the same time that I am to return you thanks for your charitable offer, I am to send you five pounds to distribute for that purpose, in the time and manner you think proper. Which I accordingly herewith send.

“ You have seen, I suppose, in the *St. James's Evening Post*, from September 22 to 25, the *Zoilus*, that attacked you, treated with proper contempt.

“ If a farm and a mere country scene will be a little refreshment from the smoke of London, we shall be glad of the happiness of seeing you at Cranham Hall. It is sixteen miles from the Three Nuns at Whitechapel, where Prior, our stage coach[man] inns. He sets out at two in the afternoon.

“ I am, Sir, your obedient humble servant,

“ J. OGLETHORP.

“ Cranham Hall, (By Gray's Bag) Essex.

No date.”¹

This letter was first printed in the Percy memoir, and as it bears no date, and Percy and his editors could give no account of it, the allusions contained in it are rather obscure. Goldsmith's intimacy with Oglethorpe is supposed to have commenced about 1769, and as September, in 1773, seems rather late for an allusion to Kenrick's *London Packet* attack of March, 1773 (*re* “the lovely H——k”), it seems possible that the letter's date may be 1771, and that the “*Zoilus*” spoken of may be the writer of the “*Brunswick*” signed attack we have mentioned. Prior says (‘*Life*,’ ii. 327) an attack upon the ‘*History*’ was replied to in the *Public Advertiser*, by, as he thinks, the publisher.

That Goldsmith's attitude towards “the liberties of the people,” did not strike everybody as hostile may be assumed from the following letter addressed to him about this time, by the then quite unknown Thomas Paine.

“ FROM THOMAS PAINE [Percy, 1801, i. 96].

“ HONOURED SIR:—Herewith I present you with the case of the officers of excise. A compliment of this kind from an entire stranger may appear somewhat singular: but the following reasons and information will, I presume, sufficiently apologize.

¹ John Edward Oglethorpe, the “founder of Georgia,” and friend of Dr. Johnson. “He was born in 1698, and after a life of varied experience died, the oldest general officer in the British army, June 30, 1785. No adequate life of this remarkable man has ever been written. At a dinner in Oglethorpe's house, Monday, April 10, 1775, Johnson urged the General to write his own life. He said, ‘I know no man whose life would be more interesting. If I were furnished with the materials I should be very glad to write it.’ It would seem, also, as if Boswell had made collections for this purpose: see *post*, note under date.” —Note in Mr. Napier's six vol. edition of Boswell, 1884, ii. 173. The *European Magazine* gives July 1, 1785, as the date of General Oglethorpe's death.—ED.

"I act myself in the humble station of an officer of excise, though somewhat differently circumstanced to what many of them are,¹ and have been the principal promoter of a plan for applying to Parliament this session for an increase of salary. A petition for this purpose has been circulated through every part of the kingdom, and signed by all the officers therein. A subscription of three shillings per officer is raised, amounting to upwards of five hundred pounds, for supporting the expenses.

"The excise officers in all cities and corporate towns have obtained letters of recommendation from the electors to the members in their behalf; many, or most of whom have promised their support. The enclosed case we have presented to most of the members, and shall to all, before the petition appears in the house.

"The memorial before you met with so much approbation in manuscript, that I was advised to print four thousand copies: three thousand of which were subscribed for by the officers in general, and the remaining one thousand reserved for presents.

"Since the delivering them, I have received so many letters of thanks and approbation for the performance, that were I not rather singularly modest, I should insensibly become a little vain.

"The literary fame of Dr. Goldsmith has induced me to present one to him, such as it is. 'Tis my first and only attempt, and even now I should not have undertaken it, had I not been particularly applied to by some of my superiors in office.

"I have some few questions to trouble Dr. Goldsmith with, and should esteem his company for an hour or two, to partake of a bottle of wine or any thing else, and apologize for this trouble, as a singular favour conferred on

"His unknown Humble Servant, and Admirer,
"THOMAS PAINE.

"Excise Coffee House, Broad Street, December 21, 1772.

"P.S.—Shall take the liberty of waiting on you in a day or two."

This letter Percy first gave to the world, having found it amongst Goldsmith's papers, and it has been since included in several editions of Paine's works. Percy, however, was unable to add anything elucidative of the sequel indicated in the letter's postscript, viz., Paine's promised call upon our author. One of Paine's biographers, R. Carlile, carries the matter a little further, saying ('Life and Works' of Paine, 1819, vol. i. p. v.)—"The 'Case of the Officers of Excise' procured our author an introduction to Oliver Goldsmith, with whom he continued on terms of intimacy during his stay in England." The "memorial" mentioned by Paine was 'The Case of the Officers of Excise; with Remarks on the Qualification of Officers,' &c., an anonymous pamphlet of 22 pp. published in 1772. It is classed as Paine's first work, but it has little in common with the after-coming works of that Revolutionary writer. Paine

¹ At this time Paine is said to have been an exciseman and grocer at Lewes.—ED.

went to America, however, in 1773, and Goldsmith died in April, 1774, consequently such "intimacy" as there may have been between the two dates wholly before the publication of the earliest of Paine's more pronounced writings, viz., his 'Common Sense,' which was first published in America in 1774 or 1775.

Two rather extraordinary errors are cited as having appeared in the first edition of this 'History of England.' In the account of the siege of Londonderry, in 1689, Goldsmith alluded to the Rev. Thomas Walker, whose heroic efforts with the besieged he stated were by "one Walker a dissenting minister." For this, as Percy, or perhaps his memoir writer, the Irish Dr. Campbell, says, "he received a proper reproof in the following letter:—

"TO DR. GOLDSMITH.

"SIR:—I beg leave to acquaint you, there is a mistake in your 'Abridgment of the History of England,' respecting Dr. Walker, viz., one Walker a dissenting minister.

"I venture to assure you, Mr. Walker was a clergyman of the established church of Ireland, that was appointed Bishop of Dromore,¹ by King William, for his services at Derry; but was unfortunately killed at the battle of the Boyne. Which I hope you will be pleased to insert in future editions of your late book.

"The Duke of Schomberg was certainly killed in passing the river Boyne. I am, Sir, with great respect,

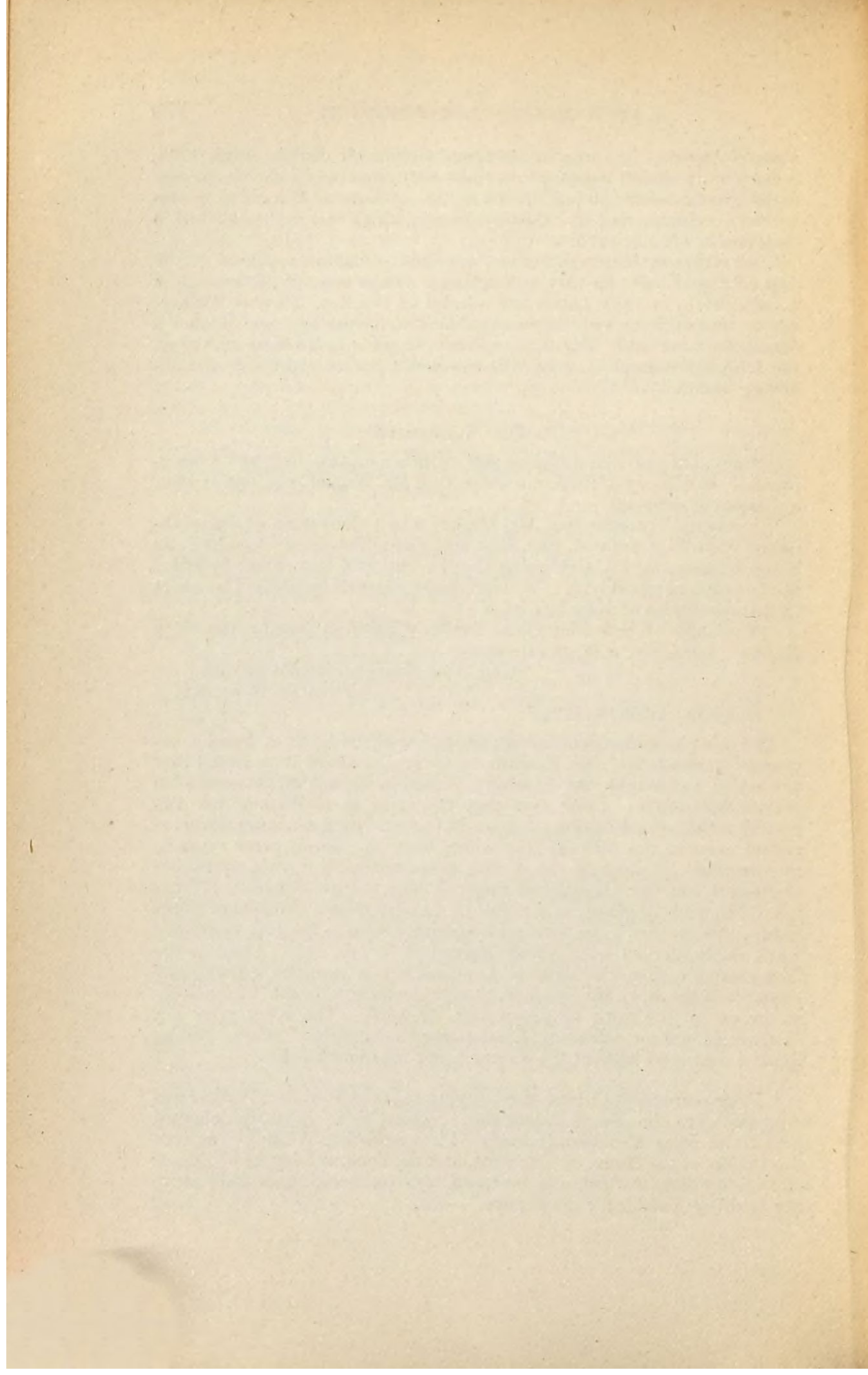
"Your most obedient humble servant,

"THOMAS WOOLSEY.

"Dundalk, April 10, 1772."

The other mistake occurred in the account of the battle of Naseby, between Charles I. and the Parliamentary army, where it is stated that the action was fought "at Naseby, a village in Yorkshire," instead of in Northamptonshire. Prior says that the error as to Walker was corrected in the second edition; but we have found that it remained uncorrected even in the fifth (1787); where also the Naseby error remains uncorrected. It may be noted that these mistakes do not appear in Goldsmith's earlier 'History of England,' viz., that published in 1764 as 'A History of England in a Series of Letters from a Nobleman to his Son;' though this, to be sure, may be simply because the last mentioned work is smaller—2 vols. 12mo. instead of 4 vols. 8vo. Thus in the Nobleman's history the siege of Londonderry is recorded without any mention of the Rev. Mr. Walker, though he figures in the Chronology at the end of the work thus:—"Aug. 28, 1689. The King gives Dr. Walker £5,000 for defending Londonderry so bravely;" while Naseby fight is described without the county being mentioned.—ED.

¹ Prior corrects the writer here, saying that the Rev. Mr. Walker was "promoted to the see of Londonderry, which he so valiantly defended (not Dromore as is commonly said)." Prior adds that Walker "received the thanks of the House of Commons, and the honorary degree of Doctor of Divinity from Oxford, and by the King's command, it is said, sat to Sir Godfrey Kneller for his picture."—ED.



THE EARTH AND ANIMATED NATURE.

(EXTRACTS.)

[Though the eight substantial volumes of the 'History of the Earth and Animated Nature,' as originally published in 1744, are now fairly obsolete from the scientific point of view, they yield descriptive and commentative matter ranking with the best of Goldsmith's essay work. Bishop Percy held this opinion with regard to the Introductions to Brookes's 'Natural History' (the opinion is given at pp. 56, 57 of the present volume), which were virtually the first fruits of our author's studies in this field. Upon the merits also of the Brookes' Introductions, Dr. Johnson, partly, founded his prediction with regard to the 'Animated Nature':—"He is now writing a Natural History, and will make it as interesting as a Persian tale" (Boswell, Standard Lib. edit. 1884, vol. ii., p. 223). Afterwards, Davies (Life of Garrick, vol. ii., p. 161) said of the completed work—the 'Animated Nature':—"Notwithstanding his [Goldsmith's] utter ignorance of the subject, he has compiled one of the pleasantest and most instructive books in our language; I mean, that it is not only useful to young minds, but entertaining to those who understand the animal creation." And herein, Mr. Forster thought, Davies was but retailing the later judgment of Dr. Johnson. These opinions remain good to our own day. We have had many more correct histories of the kind, but hardly one so generally readable. As late a writer as Mr. Forster testifies to the same effect in 1854 as did Goldsmith's friends eighty years before. Mr. Forster says that he "with singular and unexpected pleasure, read the whole book" (the entire 8 vols. 8vo! *vide* Forster, vol. ii., p. 336); and Sir James Prior has remarked of the work that—"It has proved upon a large scale, though less exact and minute, what White's 'Natural History of Selborne' has been upon a smaller: familiar and agreeable, communicating natural knowledge in the easiest manner, and attracting readers who would have been repelled from the study of more elaborate works." ('Life of Goldsmith,' vol. ii., p. 507.) These considerations warrant us, we think, in giving the present collection of extracts, which is more comprehensive than any collection yet given.

Goldsmith's reliance upon Buffon in the early part of his work is mentioned in our 'Life,' p. 31. In the later volumes, however, his own studies and personal observation appear to a greater extent than has generally been acknowledged. His mention, in his Preface (p. 188), of the fact that he early contemplated translating Pliny shows that he had an inclination to the work.

The 'Animated Nature' was Goldsmith's last work, and was published three months after his death, by "J. Nourse, in the Strand, Bookseller to His Majesty." Griffin originally bargained for the book, but he sold his interest to Nourse. See Correspondence in our vol. i., pp. 473, 484. On the title-page, our author, dropping the "Dr.," appears as plain "Oliver Goldsmith." The work was written between 1769 and 1774, and mostly, it would appear, during sundry residences at the author's various "country lodgings" round about London, such as "Farmer Selby's, at the six-mile stone, Edgware Road." See the 'Life,' pp. 30, 31, the 'Letters,' pp. 462-464, etc.—ED.]

AN HISTORY OF THE EARTH AND ANIMATED NATURE.

PREFACE.

NATURAL HISTORY, considered in its utmost extent, comprehends two objects. First, that of discovering, ascertaining, and naming all the various productions of nature. Secondly, that of describing the properties, manners, and relations which they bear to us, and to each other. The first, which is the most difficult part of this science, is systematical, dry, mechanical, and incomplete. The second is more amusing, exhibits new pictures to the imagination, and improves our relish for existence, by widening the prospect of nature around us.

Both, however, are necessary to those who would understand this pleasing science in its utmost extent. The first care of every enquirer, no doubt, should be, to visit, and examine every object, before he pretends to inspect its habitudes or its history. From seeing and observing the thing itself, he is most naturally led to speculate upon its uses, its delights, or its inconveniences.

Numberless obstructions, however, are found in this part of his pursuit, that frustrate his diligence and retard his curiosity. The objects in nature are so many, and even those of the same kind are exhibited in such a variety of forms, that the enquirer finds himself lost in the exuberance before him, and like a man who attempts to count the stars unassisted by art, his powers are all distracted in the barren superfluity.

To remedy this embarrassment, artificial systems have been devised, which, grouping into masses those parts of nature more nearly resembling each other, refer the enquirer for the name of the single object he desires to know, to some one of those general distributions where it is to be found by further examination. If, for instance, a man should in his walks meet with an animal, the name, and consequently the history of which he desires to know, he is taught by systematic writers of natural history to examine its most obvious qualities, whether a quadruped, a bird, a fish, or an insect. Having determined it, for explanation sake, to be an insect, he examines whether it has wings; if he finds it possessed of these, he is taught to examine whether it has two or four; if possessed of four, he is taught to observe whether the two upper wings are of a shelly hardness, and serve as cases to those under them; if he finds the wings composed in this manner, he is then taught to pronounce, that this insect is one of the beetle kind: of the beetle kind there are three different classes, distinguished from each other by their feelers; he examines the insect before him, and finds that the feelers are clavated or knobbed at the ends; of beetles, with feelers thus formed, there are ten kinds, and among those, he is taught to look for the precise name of that which is before him. If, for instance, the knob be divided at the ends, and the belly be streaked with white, it is no other than the dor,¹ or the maybug, an animal, the noxious qualities of which give it a very distinguished rank in the history of the insect creation. In this manner, a system of natural history may, in some measure, be compared to a dictionary of words. Both are solely intended to explain the names of things; but with this difference, that in the dictionary of words, we are led from the name of the thing to its definition, whereas, in the system of natural history, we are led from the definition to find out the name.

Such are the efforts of writers, who have composed their works with great labour and ingenuity, to direct the learner in his progress through nature, and to inform him of the

¹ Dr. Turton, in his edition of 1805, printed the more familiar name "cockchafer" in lieu of "dor."—ED.

name of every animal, plant, or fossil substance that he happens to meet with ; but it would be only deceiving the reader to conceal the truth, which is, that books alone can never teach him this art in perfection ; and the solitary student can never succeed. Without a master, and a previous knowledge of many of the objects in nature, his book will only serve to confound and disgust him. Few of the individual plants or animals that he may happen to meet with are in that precise state of health, or that exact period of vegetation, from whence their descriptions were taken. Perhaps he meets the plant only with leaves, but the systematic writer has described it in flower. Perhaps he meets the bird before it has moulted its first feathers, while the systematic description was made in the state of full perfection. He thus ranges without an instructor, confused and with sickening curiosity, from subject to subject, till at last he gives up the pursuit in the multiplicity of his disappointments. Some practice, therefore, much instruction, and diligent reading, are requisite to make a ready and expert naturalist, who shall be able, even by the help of a system, to find out the name of every object he meets with. But when this tedious, though requisite part of study is attained, nothing but delight and variety attend the rest of his journey. Wherever he travels, like a man in a country where he has many friends, he meets with nothing but acquaintances and allurements in all the stages of his way. The mere uninformed spectator passes on in gloomy solitude, but the naturalist, in every plant, in every insect, and every pebble, finds something to entertain his curiosity, and excite his speculation.

From hence it appears, that a system may be considered as a dictionary in the study of nature. The ancients, however, who have all written most delightfully on this subject, seem entirely to have rejected those humble and mechanical helps of science. They contented themselves with seizing upon the great outlines of history ; and passing over what was common, as not worth the detail, they only dwelt upon what was new, great, and surprising, and sometimes even warmed the imagination at the expense of truth. Such of the moderns as revived this science in Europe, undertook the task more methodically, though not

in a manner so pleasing. Aldrovandus, Gesner, and Johnson,¹ seemed desirous of uniting the entertaining and rich descriptions of the ancients, with the dry and systematic arrangement of which they were the first projectors. This attempt, however, was extremely imperfect, as the great variety of nature was, as yet, but very inadequately known. Nevertheless, by attempting to carry on both objects at once; first, of directing us to the name of the thing, and then giving the detail of its history, they drew out their works into a tedious and unreasonable length; and thus mixing incompatible aims, they have left their labours rather to be occasionally consulted, than read with delight by posterity.

The later moderns, with that good sense which they have carried into every other part of science, have taken a different method in cultivating natural history. They have been content to give, not only the brevity, but also the dry and disgusting air of a dictionary to their systems. Ray, Klein, Brisson, and Linnæus, have had only one aim, that of pointing out the object in nature, of discovering its name, and where it was to be found in those authors that treated of it in a more prolix and satisfactory manner. Thus, natural history, at present, is carried on in two distinct and separate channels, the one serving to lead us to the thing, the other conveying the history of the thing, as supposing it already known.

The following Natural History is written with only such an attention to system, as serves to remove the reader's embarrassments, and allure him to proceed. It can make no pretensions in directing him to the name of every object he meets with; that belongs to works of a very different kind, and written with very different aims. It will fully answer my design, if the reader, being already possess of the name of any animal, shall find here a short, though satisfactory history of its habitudes, its subsistence, its manners, its friendships and hostilities. My aim has been to carry on just as much method as was sufficient to shorten

¹ "Johnson" in the first edition, but probably John Johnston, the author of 'A Description of the Nature of Four-footed Beasts,' Amst. 1678, is meant, as in the Preface to Brookes's Natural History, *ante*, p. 70.—ED.

my descriptions by generalizing them, and never to follow order where the art of writing, which is but another name for good sense, informed me that it would only contribute to the reader's embarrassment.

Still, however, the reader will perceive that I have formed a kind of system in the history of every part of animated nature, directing myself by the great and obvious distinctions that she herself seems to have made, which, though too few to point exactly to the name, are yet sufficient to illuminate the subject, and remove the reader's perplexity. Mr. Buffon, indeed, who has brought greater talents to this part of learning than any other man, has almost entirely rejected method in classing quadrupeds. This, with great deference to such a character, appears to me running into the opposite extreme; and, as some moderns have of late spent much time, great pains, and some learning, all to very little purpose, in systematic arrangement,¹ he seems so much disgusted by their trifling but ostentatious efforts, that he describes his animals almost in the order they happen to come before him. This want of method seems to be a fault; but he can lose little by a criticism which every dull man can make, or by an error in arrangement, from which the dullest are the most usually free. In other respects, as far as this able philosopher has gone, I have taken him for my guide. The warmth of his style, and the brilliancy of his imagination, are inimitable. Leaving him, therefore, without a rival in these, and only availing myself of his information, I have been content to describe things in my own way; and though many of the materials are taken from him, yet I have added, retrenched, and altered, as I thought proper. It was my intention at one time, whenever I differed from him, to have mentioned it at the bottom of the page; but this occurred so often, that I soon found it would look like envy, and might, perhaps, convict me of those very errors which I was wanting to lay upon him. I have, therefore, as being every way

¹ In his account of the Gerbua ('An. Nat.' vol. iv.), Goldsmith has another fling at the "system makers." This, with some accompanying particulars on "a kind of Gerbua" discovered by Sir Joseph Banks, and "called the Kangaroo," was cut out for Turton's edition of the 'Animated Nature.'—ED.

his debtor, concealed my dissent, where my opinion was different; but wherever I borrow from him, I take care at the bottom of my page to express my obligations. But, though my obligations to this writer are many, they extend but to the smallest part of the work, as he has hitherto completed only the history of quadrupeds. I was therefore, left to my reading alone, to make out the history of birds, fishes, and insects, of which the arrangement was so difficult, and the necessary information so widely diffused, and so obscurely related when found, that it proved by much the most laborious part of the undertaking. Thus, having made use of Mr. Buffon's lights in the first part of this work; I may, with some share of confidence, recommend it to the public.¹ But what shall I say, to that part, where I have been entirely left without his assistance? As I would affect neither modesty nor confidence, it will be sufficient to say, that my reading upon this part of the subject has been very extensive; and that I have taxed my scanty circumstances in procuring books, which are on this subject, of all others, the most expensive. In consequence of this industry, I here offer a work to the public, of a kind which has never been attempted in ours, or any other modern language, that I know of. The ancients, indeed, and Pliny in particular, have anticipated me in the present manner of treating natural history. Like those historians who described the events of a campaign, they have not condescended to give the private particulars of every individual that formed the army; they were content with characterizing the generals, and describing their operations, while they left it to meaner hands to carry the muster-roll. I have followed their manner, rejecting the numerous fables which they adopted, and adding the improvements of the moderns, which are so numerous, that they actually make up the bulk of natural history.

The delight which I found in reading Pliny,² first inspired me with the idea of a work of this nature. Having a taste rather classical than scientific, and having but little employed myself in turning over the dry labours of modern system-makers, my earliest intention was to translate this

¹ See 'Life,' pp. 30-31.—ED.

² See pp. 192, 233.—ED.

agreeable writer, and by the help of a commentary, to make my work as amusing as I could. Let us dignify natural history never so much with the grave appellation of a useful science, yet still we must confess, that it is the occupation of the idle and the speculative, more than of the busy and the ambitious part of mankind. My intention, therefore, was to treat what I then conceived to be an idle subject, in an idle manner ; and not to hedge round plain and simple narratives with hard words, accumulated distinctions, ostentatious learning, and disquisitions that produced no conviction. Upon the appearance however, of Mr. Buffon's work, I dropped my former plan, and adopted the present, being convinced by his manner, that the best imitation of the ancients was to write from our own feelings, and to imitate nature.

It will be my chief pride, therefore, if this work may be found an innocent amusement for those who have nothing else to employ them, or who require a relaxation from labour. Professed naturalists, will, no doubt, find it superficial ; and yet I should hope, that even these will discover hints and remarks, gleaned from various reading, not wholly trite or elementary. I would wish for their approbation. But my chief ambition is to drag up the obscure and gloomy learning of the cell to open inspection ; to strip it from its garb of austerity, and to show the beauties of that form, which only the industrious and the inquisitive have been hitherto permitted to approach.

EXTRACTS, &c.

FROM THE 'HISTORY OF THE EARTH.'

THE WHISTONIAN THEORY OF THE CREATION OF THE WORLD.¹

OF all the systems which were published respecting the earth's formation, that of Whiston² was most applauded, and most opposed. Nor need we wonder; for being supported with all the parade of deep calculation, it awed the ignorant, and produced the approbation of such as would be thought otherwise, as it implied a knowledge of abstruse learning, to be even thought capable of comprehending what the writer aimed at. In fact, it is not easy to divest it³ of its mathematical garb; but those who have had leisure, have found the result of our philosopher's reason-

¹ The references at the end of the several extracts are to the first edition of the 'Animated Nature,' 8 vols. 8vo, 1774, whence the present selection is printed. Of course many "corrections" of the author's scientific dicta have been made in subsequent editions; but our object being to go to Goldsmith for his literature rather than for his science, we give our Oliver as another great Oliver wished to be given, "warts and all."—ED.

² William Whiston, the eccentric controversialist and translator of Josephus: b. 1667; d. 1732. His 'New Theory of the Earth,' &c., was published in 1696, and it is said to have passed through six editions by 1755. He also promulgated the monogamic theory which Goldsmith to some extent quizzes through the character of Dr. Primrose. See the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' chap. ii., p. 75, and chap. xiv., p. 123.—ED.

³ For "it," the "new edition" (Turton's, 1805) had "this theory."—ED.

ing to be thus. He supposes the earth to have been originally a comet ; and he considers the history of the creation, as given us in scripture, to have its commencement just when it was taken by the hand of the Creator, to be more regularly placed as a planet in our solar system.¹ Before that time, he supposes it to have been a globe without beauty or proportion ; a world in disorder ; subject to all the vicissitudes which comets endure ; some of which have been found, at different times, a thousand times hotter than melted iron ; at others, a thousand times colder than ice. These alternations of heat and cold, continually melting and freezing the surface of the earth, he supposes to have produced, to a certain depth, a chaos entirely resembling that described by the poets, surrounding the solid contents of the earth, which still continued unchanged in the midst, making a great burning globe of more than two thousand leagues in diameter. This surrounding chaos, however, was far from being solid : he resembles it to a dense though fluid atmosphere, composed of substances mingled, agitated, and shocked against each other ; and in this disorder he describes the earth to have been just at the eve of creation.

But upon its orbit's being then changed, when it was more regularly wheeled round the sun, every thing took its proper place ; every part of the surrounding fluid then fell into a situation, in proportion as it was light or heavy. The middle, or central part, which always remained unchanged, still continued so, retaining a part of that heat which it received in its primæval approaches towards the sun ; which heat, he calculates, may continue for about six thousand years. Next to this fell the heavier parts of the chaotic atmosphere, which serve to sustain the lighter : but as in descending they could not entirely be separated from many watery parts, with which they were intimately mixed, they drew down a part of these also with them ; and these could not mount again after the surface of the earth was consolidated : they, therefore, surrounded the

¹ Turton's edition reads : " Just when it was, by the hand of the Creator, more regularly placed as a planet," &c. On Turton's " corrected " edition of Goldsmith's ' Animated Nature,' see p. 200, note 2. —ED.

heavy first descending parts, in the same manner as these surround the central globe. Thus the entire body of the earth is composed most internally of a great burning globe; next which, is placed a heavy terrene substance, that encompasses it; round which also is circumfused a body of water. Upon this body of water, the crust of earth on which we inhabit is placed: so that, according to him, the globe is composed of a number of coats, or shells, one within the other, all of different densities. The body of the earth being thus formed, the air, which is the lightest substance of all, surrounded its surface; and the beams of the sun darting through, produced that light which, we are told, first obeyed the Creator's command.—Vol. i., pp. 28, 29.

BUFFON'S THEORY OF THE EARTH'S FORMATION.

AFTER so many theories of the earth, which had been published, applauded, answered, and forgotten, Mr. Buffon ventured to add one more to the number. This philosopher was, in every respect, better qualified than any of his predecessors for such an attempt, being furnished with more materials, having a brighter imagination to find new proofs, and a better style to clothe them in. However, if one so ill qualified, as I am, may judge, this seems the weakest part of his admirable work; and I could wish, that he had been content with giving us facts instead of systems; that, instead of being a reasoner, he had contented himself with being merely an historian.—Vol. i., p. 33.

THE EARTH: TRANSLATION FROM PLINY.

It is this earth, says Pliny,¹ that, like a kind mother, receives us at our birth, and sustains us when born. It is this alone, of all the elements around us, that is never found an enemy to man. The body of waters deluge him with rains, oppress him with hail, and drown him with inundations. The air rushes in storms, prepares the tem-

¹ 'Plinii Naturalis Historia,' lib. ii., cap. lxiii.—GOLDSMITH. [See pp. 188, 233.—ED.]

pest, or lights up the volcano; but the earth, gentle and indulgent, ever subservient to the wants of man, spreads his walks with flowers, and his table with plenty; returns with interest every good committed to her care; and, though she produces the poison, she still supplies the antidote; though constantly teased more to furnish the luxuries of man than his necessities, yet, even to the last, she continues her kind indulgence, and, when life is over, she piously covers his remains in her bosom.—Vol. i., p. 53.

MOUNTAIN CLIMBING.

It need scarce be said that, with respect to height, there are many sizes of mountains, from the gently rising upland, to the tall craggy precipice. The appearance is in general different in those of different magnitudes. The first are clothed with verdure to the very tops, and only seem to ascend to improve our prospects, or supply us with a purer air: but the lofty mountains of the other class have a very different aspect. At a distance their tops are seen, in wavy ridges, of the very colour of the clouds, and only to be distinguished from them by their figure, which, as I have said, resembles the billows of the sea.¹ As we approach, the mountain assumes a deeper colour; it gathers upon the sky, and seems to hide half the horizon behind it. Its summits also are become more distinct, and appear with a broken and perpendicular line. What at first seemed a single hill, is now found to be a chain of continued mountains, whose tops, running along in ridges, are embosomed in each other; so that the curvatures of one are fitted to the prominences of the opposite side, and form a winding valley between, often of several miles in extent; and all the way continuing nearly of the same breadth. Nothing can be finer, or more exact than Mr. Pope's description of a traveller straining up the Alps.²

¹ 'Lettres Philosophiques sur la Formation,' &c., p. 196.—GOLDSMITH.

² No doubt the passage in the 'Essay on Criticism,' ll. 32, &c., is meant—

“Hills peep o'er hills, and Alps on Alps arise!” &c.,

part of which our author quotes in Essay I. 'On Clubs,' p. 257, vol. i.—ED.

Every mountain he comes to he thinks will be the last; he finds, however, an unexpected hill rise before him; and that being scaled, he finds the highest summit almost at as great a distance as before. Upon quitting the plain, he might have left a green and fertile soil, and a climate warm and pleasing. As he ascends, the ground assumes a more russet colour; the grass becomes more mossy; and the weather more moderate. Still as he ascends, the weather becomes more cold, and the earth more barren. In this dreary passage, he is often entertained with a little valley of surprising verdure, caused by the reflected heat of the sun collected into a narrow spot on the surrounding heights. But it much more frequently happens that he sees only frightful precipices beneath, and lakes of amazing depths; from whence rivers are formed, and fountains derive their original. On those places next the highest summits, vegetation is scarcely carried on; here and there a few plants of the most hardy kind appear. The air is intolerably cold; either continually refrigerated with frosts, or disturbed with tempests. All the ground here wears an eternal covering of ice, and snows that seem constantly accumulating. Upon emerging from this war of the elements, he ascends into a purer and a serener region, where vegetation is entirely ceased; where the precipices, composed entirely of rocks, rise perpendicularly above him; while he views beneath him all the combat of the elements; clouds at his feet, and thunders darting upward from their bosoms below.¹ A thousand meteors, which are never seen on the plain, present themselves. Circular rainbows;² mock suns; the shadow of the mountain projected upon the body of the air;³ and the traveller's own image, reflected as in a looking-glass, upon the opposite cloud.⁴—Vol. i., pp. 142-145.

¹ 'Ulloa,' vol. i.—GOLDSMITH.

² *Ibid.*—GOLDSMITH.

³ 'Phil. Trans.,' vol. v., p. 152.—GOLDSMITH.

⁴ 'Ulloa,' vol. i.—GOLDSMITH. ["Ulloa" referred to is 'The Voyage to South America,' &c., by Don George Juan and Don Antonio de Ulloa, captains of the Spanish navy," a popular translation from the Spanish of which appeared in a second edition in 1760.—ED.]

THE GREAT PLAGUE OF LONDON.

IN that great plague which desolated the city of London, in the year 1665, a pious and learned schoolmaster of Mr. Boyle's acquaintance, who ventured to stay in the city, and took upon him the humane office of visiting the sick and the dying, who had been deserted by better physicians, averred, that being once called to a poor woman who had buried her children of the plague, he found the room where she lay so little that it scarce could hold any more than the bed whereon she was stretched. However, in this wretched abode, beside her, in an open coffin, her husband lay, who had some time before died of the same disease; and whom she, poor creature, soon followed. But what showed the peculiar malignity of the air thus suffering from animal putrefaction, was, that the contagious streams had produced spots on the very wall of their wretched apartment: and Mr. Boyle's own study, which was contiguous to a pest-house, was also spotted in the same frightful manner. Happily for mankind, this disorder, for more than a century, has not been known in our island; and, for this last age, has abated much of its violence, even in those countries where it is most common. Diseases, like empires, have their revolutions; and those which for a while were the scourge of mankind, sink unheard of, to give place to new ones, more dreadful, as being less understood.—Vol. i., pp. 329-330.

THE WORLD WE LIVE IN.

HAVING thus gone through a particular description of the earth, let us now pause for a moment, to contemplate the great picture before us. The universe may be considered as the palace in which the Deity resides; and this earth as one of its apartments. In this, all the meaner races of animated nature mechanically obey him; and stand ready to execute his commands, without hesitation. Man alone is found refractory; he is the only being endowed with a power of contradicting these mandates. The

Deity was pleased to exert superior power in creating him a superior being; a being endued with a choice of good and evil; and capable, in some measure, of co-operating with his own intentions. Man, therefore, may be considered as a limited creature, endued with powers imitative of those residing in the Deity. He is thrown into a world that stands in need of his help; and has been granted a power of producing harmony from partial confusion.

If, therefore, we consider the earth as allotted for our habitation, we shall find, that much has been given us to enjoy, and much to amend; that we have ample reasons for our gratitude, and still more for our industry. In those great outlines of nature, to which art cannot reach, and where our greatest efforts must have been ineffectual, God himself has finished these with amazing grandeur and beauty. Our beneficent Father has considered these parts of nature as peculiarly his own; as parts which no creature could have skill or strength to amend; and therefore, made them incapable of alteration, or of more perfect regularity. The heavens, and the firmament, show the wisdom, and the glory of the Workman. Astronomers, who are best skilled in the symmetry of systems, can find nothing there that they can alter for the better. God made these perfect, because no subordinate being could correct their defects.

When, therefore, we survey nature on this side, nothing can be more splendid, more correct, or amazing. We there behold a Deity residing in the midst of a universe, infinitely extended every way, animating all, and cheering the vacuity with his presence! We behold an immense and shapeless mass of matter, formed into worlds by his power, and dispersed at intervals, to which even the imagination cannot travel! In this great theatre of his glory, a thousand suns, like our own, animate their respective systems, appearing and vanishing at divine command. We behold our own bright luminary, fixed in the centre of its system, wheeling its planets in times proportioned to their distances, and at once dispensing light, heat, and action. The earth also is seen with its twofold motion; producing, by the one, the change of seasons; and, by the other, the

grateful vicissitudes of day and night. With what silent magnificence is all this performed! with what seeming ease! The works of art are exerted with interrupted force; and their noisy progress discovers the obstructions they receive: but the earth, with a silent steady rotation, successively presents every part of its bosom to the sun; at once imbibing nourishment and light from that parent of vegetation and fertility.

But not only provisions of heat and light are thus supplied, but its whole surface is covered with a transparent atmosphere, that turns with its motion, and guards it from external injury. The rays of the sun are thus broken into a genial warmth; and, while the surface is assisted, a gentle heat is produced in the bowels of the earth, which contributes to cover it with verdure. Waters also are supplied in healthful abundance, to support life, and assist vegetation. Mountains arise, to diversify the prospect, and give a current to the stream. Seas extend from one continent to the other, replenished with animals, that may be turned to human support, and also serving to enrich the earth with a sufficiency of vapour. Breezes fly along the surface of the fields, to promote health and vegetation. The coolness of the evening invites to rest; and the freshness of the morning renews for labour.

Such are the delights of the habitation that has been assigned to man; without any one of these, he must have been wretched; and none of these could his own industry have supplied. But while many of his wants are thus kindly furnished, on the one hand, there are numberless inconveniences to excite his industry on the other. This habitation, though provided with all the conveniences of air, pasturage, and water, is but a desert place, without human cultivation. The lowest animal finds more conveniences in the wilds of nature, than he who boasts himself their lord. The whirlwind, the inundation, and all the asperities of the air, are peculiarly terrible to man, who knows their consequences, and, at a distance, dreads their approach. The earth itself, where human art has not pervaded, puts on a frightful gloomy appearance. The forests are dark and tangled; the meadows over-grown with rank weeds; and the brooks stray without a determined channel.

Nature, that has been kind to every lower order of beings, has been quite neglectful with regard to him ; to the savage uncontriving man the earth is an abode of desolation, where his shelter is insufficient, and his food precarious.

A world thus furnished with advantages on one side, and inconveniences on the other, is the proper abode of reason, is the fittest to exercise the industry of a free and a thinking creature. These evils, which art can remedy, and prescience guard against, are a proper call for the exertion of his faculties ; and they tend still more to assimilate him to his Creator. God beholds, with pleasure, that being which he has made converting the wretchedness of his natural situation into a theatre of triumph ; bringing all the headlong tribes of nature into subjection to his will ; and producing that order and uniformity upon earth, of which his own heavenly fabric is so bright an example.—Vol. i., pp. 397-401.

FROM THE 'HISTORY OF ANIMALS.'

THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN.¹

I HAVE ever found it a vain task to try to make a child's learning its amusement ; nor do I see what good end it would answer were it actually attained. The child, as was said, ought to have its share of play, and it will be benefited thereby ; and for every reason also, it ought to have its share of labour. The mind, by early labour, will be thus accustomed to fatigues and subordination ; and whatever be the person's future employment in life, he will be better fitted to endure it : he will be thus enabled to support the drudgeries of office with content ; or to fill up the vacancies of life with variety. The child, therefore, should by times be put to its duty ; and be taught to know, that the task is to be done, or the punishment to be endured. I do not object against alluring it to duty by reward ; but

¹ See also the essay upon Education in the 'Bee,' vol. ii., p. 400.—
ED.

we well know, that the mind will be more strongly stimulated by pain; and both may, upon some occasions, take their turn to operate. In this manner, a child, by playing with its equals abroad, and labouring with them at school, will acquire more health and knowledge than by being bred up under the wing of any speculative system-maker; and will be thus qualified for a life of activity and obedience. It is true, indeed, that when educated in this manner, the boy may not be so seemingly sensible and forward as one bred up under solitary instruction; and, perhaps, this early forwardness, is more engaging than useful. It is well known, that many of those children who have been such prodigies of literature before ten, have not made an adequate progress to twenty. It should seem, that they only began learning manly things before their time; and, while others were busied in picking up that knowledge adapted to their age and curiosity, these were forced upon subjects unsuited to their years, and upon that account alone appearing extraordinary. The stock of knowledge in both may be equal; but with this difference, that each is yet to learn what the other knows.—Vol. ii., pp. 67, 68.

THE JAW IN ANIMALS.—STORY TOLD OF PROFESSOR
M'LAURIN.

THE under jaw in man possesses a great variety of motions; while the upper has been thought, by many, to be quite immoveable.¹ However, that it moves in man, a very easy experiment will suffice to convince us. If we keep the head fixed, with anything between our teeth, the edge of a table for instance, and then open our mouths, we shall find that both jaws recede from it at the same time; the upper jaw rises, and the lower falls, and the table remains untouched between them. The upper jaw, therefore, has motion as well as the under; and, what is remarkable, it has its proper muscles behind the head, for

¹ Mr. Buffon is of this opinion. He says, that the upper jaw is immoveable in all animals whatsoever. However, the parrot is an obvious exception; and so is man himself, as shown above.—GOLDSMITH.

thus raising and depressing it. Whenever, therefore, we eat, both jaws move at the same time, though very unequally; for the whole head moving with the upper jaw, of which it makes a part, its motions are thus less observable. In the human embryo, the under jaw is very much advanced before the upper. In the adult, it hangs a good deal more backward; and those whose upper and under row of teeth are equally prominent, and strike directly against each other, are what the painters call under-hung; and they consider this as a great defect in beauty.¹ The under jaw in a Chinese face falls greatly more backward than with us; and, I am told, the difference is half an inch, when the mouth is shut naturally. In instances of the most violent passion, the under jaw has often an involuntary quivering motion; and often also, a state of languor produces another, which is that of yawning. Every one knows how very sympathetic this kind of languid motion is; and that for one person to yawn, is sufficient to set all the rest of the company a yawning. A ridiculous instance of this was commonly practised upon the famous M'Laurin, one of the professors at Edinburgh. He was very subject to have his jaw dislocated; so that when he opened his mouth wider than ordinary, or when he yawned, he could not shut it again. In the midst of his harangues, therefore, if any of his pupils began to be tired of his lecture, he had only to gape or yawn, and the professor instantly caught the sympathetic affection; so that he thus continued to stand speechless, with his mouth wide open, till his servant, from the next room, was called in to set his jaw again.²—Vol. ii., pp. 90-92.

¹ Mr. Buffon says, that both jaws, in a perfect face, should be on a level: but this is denied by the best painters.—GOLDSMITH.

² Professor Colin M'Laurin must be meant. He died in 1746, six years before Goldsmith's student days in Edinburgh. In the second edition of the 'Animated Nature' the publishers inserted the following correction:—"Since the publication of this work the editor has been credibly informed that the professor had not the defect here mentioned." Possibly the story was one told by the students to "freshmen," and Goldsmith was simple enough to believe it. Or perhaps he only affected to believe the story, that he might tell it as a good joke. The theory of the movability of the upper jaw here put forth is one of the things for which Goldsmith got laughed at, and that even before his book was published. See Cooke's account of our author's argument with George

MELANCHOLY.

THERE is yet a silent agony, in which the mind appears to disdain all external help, and broods over its distresses with gloomy reserve. This is the most dangerous state of mind; accidents or friendship may lessen the louder kinds of grief; but all remedies for this, must be had from within: and there, despair too often finds the most deadly enemy.—Vol. ii., p. 92.

THE HEAD AND FACE AS EXPRESSIVE OF CHARACTER.

PAINTERS, whose study leads to the contemplation of external forms, are much more adequate judges of these than any naturalist can be; and it is with these a general remark, that no one passion is regularly expressed on different countenances in the same manner; but that grief often sits upon the face like joy; and pride assumes the air of passion. It would be vain, therefore, in words, to express their general effect, since they are often as various as the countenances they sit upon; and in making this distinction nicely, lies all the skill of the physiognomist. In being able to distinguish what part of the face is marked by nature, and what by the mind; what part has been originally formed, and what is made by habit, constitutes this science; upon which the ancients so much valued themselves, and which we at present so little regard.

Bellas on the subject, in the *European Magazine*, vol. xxiv., p. 260. Though no doubt very wrong upon this point, it seems to us that in so valiantly opposing Buffon—to say nothing of Bellas, in the “violent dispute” recorded by Cooke—Goldsmith must have had some warrant for his assertion from some one more scientific than himself. It is remarkable that Dr. W. Turton, who published several professedly “corrected” editions of the ‘Animated Nature’ after Goldsmith’s death, has no word of correction for this theory, though, as a medical man, we must suppose him to have been not uninformed upon the subject. Dr. Turton’s *corrections* of Goldsmith, by the way, are rather hard to find in his editions of 1805 and 1816. There are a few additions, but hardly any corrections.—ED.

Some, however, of the most acute men among us, have paid great attention to this art; and, by long practice, have been able to give some character of every person whose face they examined. Montaigne is well known to have disliked those men who shut one eye in looking upon any object: and Fielding asserts, that he never knew a person with a steady glavering smile, but he found him a rogue. However, most of these observations, tending to a discovery of the mind by the face, are merely capricious; and Nature has kindly hid our hearts from each other, to keep us in good humour with our fellow creatures.—Vol. ii., p. 94.

SAVAGE LOVE OF FINERY.

IN fact, we have a very wrong idea of savage finery; and are apt to suppose that, like the beasts of the forest, they rise, and are dressed with a shake: but the reverse is true; for no birth-night beauty¹ takes more time or pains in the adorning her person, than they. I remember, when the Cherokee kings were over here, that I have waited for three hours, during the time they were dressing. They never would venture to make their appearance till they had gone through the tedious ceremonies of the toilet; they had their boxes of oil and ochre, their fat, and their perfumes, like the most effeminate beau, and generally took up four hours in dressing, before they considered themselves as fit to be seen.² We must not, therefore, consider a delicacy in point of dress, as a mark of refinement, since savages are much more difficult in this particular, than the most fashionable or tawdry European.

¹ In allusion to the balls so abundantly given upon the night of the king's birth-day in these times.—ED.

² This "interviewing" of the Cherokees seems to have been reported at the time—and no doubt by Goldsmith himself—in the *British Magazine*, 1762, pp. 378, 419. Their "Palace," it seems (though they were not "kings," but chiefs), was in Suffolk Street, and they visited the King, Sadler's Wells, and the "cannon, bombs, &c., in Woolwich-warren," with much satisfaction. Our author was a contributor to the *British Magazine* from 1760 to 1763: see pp. 323 and 406-8, vol. i., the Later Collected Essays in vol. iv. (p. 416), &c.—ED.

The more barbarous the people, the fonder of finery. In Europe, the lustre of jewels, and the splendour of the most brilliant colours, are generally given up to women, or to the weakest part of the other sex, who are willing to be contemptibly fine: but in Asia, these trifling fineries are eagerly sought after by every condition of men; and, as the proverb has it, we find the richest jewels in an Æthiop's ear.¹ The passion for glittering ornaments, is still stronger among the absolute barbarians, who often exchange their whole stock of provisions, and whatever else they happen to be possessed of, with our seamen, for a glass bead, or a looking-glass.—Vol. ii., pp. 97, 98.

HUNGER IN MAN AND ANIMALS.—“A BROKEN HEART.”—

ABSTINENCE.

MAN is unfit for a state of precarious expectation. That share of provident precaution which incites him to lay up stores for a distant day, becomes his torment, when totally unprovided against an immediate call. The lower race of animals, when satisfied, for the instant moment, are perfectly happy; but it is otherwise with man; his mind anticipates distress, and feels the pang of want even before it arrests him. Thus the mind, being continually harassed by the situation, it at length influences the constitution, and unfits it for all its functions. Some cruel disorder, but no way like hunger, seizes the unhappy sufferer; so that almost all those men who have thus long lived by chance, and whose every day may be considered as a happy escape from famine, are known at last to die in reality, of a disorder caused by hunger; but which, in the common language, is often called a broken-heart. Some of these I have known myself, when very little able to relieve them:

¹ But, query, is there such a “proverb;” or is this one of Goldsmith's frequent imperfect recollections of Shakspeare—of, in fact, Romeo's—

“It seems she hangs upon the cheek of night
Like a rich jewel in an Ethiop's ear.”

Romeo and Juliet, i. v. ll. 47-8?—ED.

and I have been told, by a very active and worthy magistrate, that the number of such as die in London for want, is much greater than one would imagine—I think he talked of two thousand in a year.¹

But how numerous soever those who die of hunger may be, many times greater, on the other hand, are the number of those who die by repletion. It is not the province of the present page to speculate, with the physician, upon the danger of surfeits; or, with the moralist, upon the nauseousness of gluttony: it will only be proper to observe, that as nothing is so prejudicial to health as hunger by constraint, so nothing is more beneficial to the constitution than voluntary abstinence. It was not without reason that religion enjoined this duty; since it answered the double purpose of restoring the health oppressed by luxury, and diminished the consumption of provisions, so that a part might come to the poor. It should be the business of the legislature, therefore, to enforce this Divine precept; and thus, by restraining one part of mankind in the use of their superfluities, to consult for the benefit of those who want the necessaries of life. The injunctions for abstinence are strict over the whole Continent; and were rigorously observed, even among ourselves, for a long time after the Reformation. Queen Elizabeth, by giving her commands upon this head the air of a political injunction, lessened, in a great measure, and, in my opinion, very unwisely, the religious force of the obligation. She enjoined that her subjects should fast from flesh on Fridays and

¹ Prior thought these remarks were a reminiscence of Goldsmith's friend Purdon and some others of those he was associated with in his earliest struggles in London. At p. 307, vol. i., of his 'Life of Goldsmith,' Prior has the following, in an account of Purdon:—"Relieved frequently by Goldsmith when denial would have been no more than prudence to himself, Purdon was long known as one of his pensioners; he saw much of his benefactor, was not ungrateful for the assistance rendered, and related many anecdotes of him, of which a few only have travelled down to us, preserved by casual auditors. He died as he had lived, in penury; and it was, perhaps, with reference to him and others whom he avows to have known in the same unfortunate situation, and it is to be feared with the remembrance of some suffering of his own, that we find the following passage on the effects of hunger," &c. For more concerning Purdon see Goldsmith's Epitaph on him at p. 91, vol. ii., pp. 2, 35, vol. iv., &c.—ED.

Saturdays; but at the same time declared, that this was not commanded from motives of religion, as if there were any differences in meats, but merely to favour the consumption of fish, and thus to multiply the number of mariners; and also to spare the stock of sheep, which might be more beneficial in another way. In this manner the injunction defeated its own force; and this most salutary law became no longer binding, when it was supposed to come purely from man. How far it may be enjoined in the Scriptures, I will not take upon me to say; but this may be asserted, that if the utmost benefit to the individual, and the most extensive advantage to society, serve to mark any institution as of Heaven, this of abstinence may be reckoned among the foremost.—Vol. ii., pp. 129-131.

SLEEP.

Too much sleep dulls the apprehension, weakens the memory, and unfits the body for labour. On the contrary, sleep too much abridged, emaciates the frame, produces melancholy, and consumes the constitution. It requires some care, therefore, to regulate the quantity of sleep, and just to take as much as will completely restore nature, without oppressing it. The poor, as Otway says, sleep little; forced, by their situation, to lengthen out their labour to their necessities, they have but a short interval for this pleasing refreshment; and I have ever been of opinion, that bodily labour demands a less quantity of sleep than mental. Labourers and artizans are generally satisfied with about seven hours; but I have known some scholars who usually slept nine, and perceived their faculties no way impaired by oversleeping. The famous Philip Barrettiere,¹ who was considered as a prodigy of learning at the age of fourteen, was known to sleep regularly twelve hours in the twenty-four; the extreme activity of his mind, when awake, in some measure called for an adequate alternation of repose: and, I am apt to think, that when

¹ Dr. Johnson gave some account of John Philip Barretier in the *Gentleman's Magazine* of 1740, the year in which Barretier died, aged 19.—ED.

students stint themselves in this particular, they lessen the waking powers of the imagination, and unfit it for its most strenuous exertions. Animals, that seldom think, as was said, can very easily dispense with sleep; and of men, such as think least, will very probably be satisfied with the smallest share. A life of study, it is well known, unfits the body for receiving this gentle refreshment; the approaches of sleep are driven off by thinking: when, therefore, it comes at last, we should not be too ready to interrupt its continuance.

Sleep is, indeed, to some, a very agreeable period of their existence: and it has been a question in the schools, which was most happy, the man who was a beggar by night, and a king by day; or he who was a beggar by day, and a king by night? It is given in favour of the nightly monarch, by him who first started the question: for the dream, says he, gives the full enjoyment of the dignity, without its attendant inconveniences; while, on the other hand, the king who supposes himself degraded, feels all the misery of his fallen fortune, without trying to find the comforts of his humble situation. Thus, by day, both states have their peculiar distresses; but, by night, the exalted beggar is perfectly blessed, and the king completely miserable.¹—Vol. ii., pp. 137-139.

MUSIC AND MADNESS.—THE TARANTULA.

WE are told,² of Henry IV. of Denmark, that being one day desirous of trying in person whether a musician who boasted that he could excite men to madness, was not an impostor, he submitted to the operation of his skill; but the consequence was much more terrible than he expected; for, becoming actually mad, he killed four of his attendants, in the midst of his transports. A contrary effect of music we have,³ in the cure of a madman, of Alais,

¹ This passage opened the essay on 'Cyrillo Padovano, the Noted Sleep-walker,' contributed to the *Westminster Magazine* in 1773, and reprinted at p. 506 of vol. iv.—ED.

² 'Olai Magni,' lib. xv., hist. c. xxviii.—GOLDSMITH.

³ 'Hist. de l'Acad.,' 1708, p. 22.—GOLDSMITH.

in France, by music. This man, who was a dancing-master, after a fever of five days, grew furious, and so ungovernable that his hands were obliged to be tied to his sides: what at first was rage, in a short time was converted into silent melancholy, which no arts could exhilarate, nor no medicines remove. In this sullen and dejected state, an old acquaintance accidentally came to enquire after his health; he found him sitting up in bed, tied, and totally regardless of every external object round him.¹ Happening, however, to take up a fiddle that lay in the room, and touching a favourite air, the poor madman instantly seemed to brighten up at the sound; from a recumbent posture, he began to sit up; and as the musician continued playing, the patient seemed desirous of dancing to the sound; but he was tied, and incapable of leaving his bed, so that he could only humour the tune with his head, and those parts of his arms which were at liberty. Thus the other continued playing, and the dancing-master practised his own art, as far as he was able, for about a quarter of an hour, when suddenly falling into a deep sleep, in which his disorder came to a crisis, he awaked perfectly recovered.

A thousand other instances might be added, equally true: let it suffice to add one more, which is not true; I mean that of the tarantula. Every person who has been in Italy, now well knows, that the bite of this animal, and its being cured by music, is all a deception. When strangers come into that part of the country, the country people are ready enough to take money for dancing to the tarantula. A friend of mine had a servant who suffered himself to be bit; the wound, which was little larger than the puncture of a pin, was uneasy for a few hours, and then became well without any farther assistance. Some of the country people, however, still make a tolerable livelihood of the credulity of strangers, as the musician finds his account in it not less than the dancer.—Vol. ii., pp. 169-171.

¹ From what follows, it seems as if we should here read, "found him lying in bed," &c.; yet the first edition and Turton's "corrected" edition have "found him sitting up in bed," &c.—ED.

COMPLEXION OF EUROPEANS.

OF all the colours by which mankind is diversified, it is easy to perceive, that ours is not only the most beautiful to the eye, but the most advantageous. The fair complexion seems, if I may so express it, as a transparent covering to the soul; all the variations of the passions, every expression of joy or sorrow, flows to the cheek, and, without language, marks the mind. In the slightest change of health, also, the colour of the European face is the most exact index, and often teaches us to prevent those disorders that we do not as yet perceive: not but that the African black, and the Asiatic olive complexions, admit of their alterations also; but these are neither so distinct, nor so visible, as with us; and, in some countries, the colour of the visage is never found to change; but the face continues in the same settled shade in shame, and in sickness, in anger, and despair.—Vol. ii., p. 232.

DWARFS.—COAN, OF NORFOLK.

I HAVE sometimes conversed with some of these that were exhibited at our fairs about town, and have ever found their intellects as contracted as their persons. They, in general, seemed to me to have faculties very much resembling those of children, and their desires seemed of the same kind; being diverted with the same sports, and best pleased with such companions. Of all those I have seen, which may amount to five or six, the little man, whose name was Coan, that died lately at Chelsea, was the most intelligent and sprightly. I have heard him and the giant, who sung at the theatres, sustain a very ridiculous duet, to which they were taught to give great spirit. But this mirth, and seeming sagacity, were but assumed. He had, by long habit, been taught to look cheerful upon the approach of company; and his conversation was but the mere etiquette of a person that had been used to receive

visitors. When driven out of his walk, nothing could be more stupid or ignorant, nothing more dejected or forlorn.¹
—Vol. ii., pp. 253, 254.

ALLEGED SUPERIOR STATURE AND BEAUTY OF THE ANCIENTS.

THE ordinary stature of men, Mr. Derham² observes, is, in all probability, the same now as at the beginning. The oldest measure we have of the human figure, is in the monument of Cheops, in the first pyramid of Egypt. This must have subsisted many hundred years before the times of Homer, who is the first that deplores the decay. This monument, however, scarce exceeds the measure of our ordinary coffins: the cavity is no more than six feet long, two feet wide, and deep in about the same proportion. Several mummies, also, of a very early age, are found to be only of the ordinary stature; and show that, for these three thousand years at least, men have not suffered the least diminution. We have many corroborating proofs of this, in the ancient pieces of armour which are dug up in different parts of Europe. The brass helmet dug up at Medauro, fits one of our men, and yet is allowed to have been left there at the overthrow of Asdrubal. Some of our finest antique statues, which we learn from Pliny, and others, to be exactly as big as the life, still continue to this day, remaining monuments of the superior excellence of their workmen indeed, but not of the superiority of their stature. We may conclude, therefore, that men have been, in all ages, pretty much of the same size they are at

¹ John Coan, born at Twitstall in Norfolk, 1728. In the latter part of his life he was exhibited at the Dwarf Tavern in Chelsea fields, where he died, March 28, 1764. He appeared upon the stage at Tunbridge Wells and elsewhere, and was shown to the King and the Royal Society. W. Arderon, F.R.S., has described him in the Phil. Soc. Trans. for 1750. The giant mentioned was probably "Edward Bamford, the gigantic hatter of Shire-lane, Temple Bar," a native of Staffordshire. A portrait of Coan with Bamford, engraved by Roberts, appeared in 1771. A "Staffordshire giant" is mentioned at p. 251, vol. i.—ED.

² Perhaps William Derham, who translated and annotated Albin's 'Natural History of Birds,' 'British Insects,' &c., about 1738-1750.—ED.

present; and that the only difference must have been accidental, or perhaps national.

As to the superior beauty of our ancestors, it is not easy to make the comparison; beauty seems a very uncertain charm; and frequently is less in the object, than in the eye of the beholder. Were a modern lady's face formed exactly like the Venus of Medicis, or the Sleeping Vestal, she would scarce be considered beautiful, except by the lovers of antiquity, whom, of all her admirers, perhaps, she would be least desirous of pleasing. It is true, that we have some disorders among us that disfigure the features, and from which the ancients were exempt; but it is equally so, that we want some which were common among them, and which were equally deforming.¹ As for their intellectual powers, these also were probably the same as ours: we excel them in the sciences, which may be considered as a history of accumulated experience; and they excel us in the poetic arts, as they had the first rifling of all the striking images of Nature.—Vol. ii., pp. 263-265.

ENGLISH HORSES.—THE RACE HORSE CHILDERS.

I HAVE hitherto omitted making mention of one particular breed [of horses], more excellent than any that either the ancients or moderns have produced; and that is our own. It is not without great assiduity, and unceasing application, that the English horses are now become superior to those of any other part of the world, both for size, strength, swiftness, and beauty. It was not without great attention, and repeated trials of all the best horses in different parts of the world, that we have been thus successful in improving the breed of this animal; so that the English horses are now capable of performing what no others ever could attain to. By a judicious mixture of the several kinds, by the happy difference of our soils, and by our superior skill in management, we have brought this animal to its highest perfection. An English horse, there-

¹ Goldsmith was much marked with the small-pox. His allusions to this common scourge of his time are numerous: see Poems, vol. ii. p. 86, &c.—ED.

fore, is now known to excel the Arabian, in size and swiftness; to be more durable than the Barb, and more hardy than the Persian. An ordinary racer is known to go at the rate of a mile in two minutes: and we had one instance, in the admirable Childers, of still greater rapidity.¹ He has been frequently known to move above eighty-two feet and a half in a second, or almost a mile in a minute: he has run also round the course of Newmarket, which is very little less than four miles, in six minutes and forty seconds. But what is surprising, no other horse has been since found, that ever could equal him; and those of his breed have been remarkably deficient.—Vol. ii., pp. 367, 368.

KNOWLEDGE OF THEIR ENEMIES POSSESSED BY DOGS, ETC.

—DOGS IN CHINA.—THE ZEBRA.

THE zebra may hitherto have continued wild, because it is the native of a country where there have been no successive efforts made to reclaim it. All pursuits that have been hitherto instituted against it, were rather against its life than its liberty; the animal has thus been long taught to consider man as its most mortal enemy; and it is not to be wondered that it refuses to yield obedience where it has so seldom experienced mercy. There is a kind of knowledge in all animals, that I have often considered with amazement; which is, that they seem perfectly to know their enemies, and to avoid them. Instinct, indeed, may teach the deer to fly from the lion; or the mouse to avoid the cat; but what is the principle that teaches the dog to attack the dog-butcher wherever he sees him? In China, where the killing and dressing dogs is a trade, whenever one of these people move out, all the dogs of the village, or the street, are sure to be after him. This I should hardly have believed, but that I have seen more

¹ "Flying Childers," as this famous racer came to be called, was originally owned by Leonard Childers, Esq., of Carr House, near Doncaster. The Duke of Devonshire bought him when young. He won some £20,000 in prizes, and died in the Duke's stud in 1741, being then twenty-six years old. His sire was an Arabian horse.—ED.

than one instance of it among ourselves. I have seen a poor fellow who made a practice of stealing and killing dogs for their skins, pursued hue and cry for three or four streets together, by all the bolder breed of dogs, while the weaker flew from his presence with affright.¹ How these animals could thus find out their enemy, and pursue him, appears, I own, unaccountable, but such is the fact; and it not only obtains in dogs, but in several other animals, though perhaps to a less degree. This very probably may have been, in some measure, a cause that has hitherto kept the zebra in its state of natural wildness; and in which it may continue, till kinder treatment shall have reconciled it to its pursuers.²—Vol. ii., pp. 394, 395.

THE COW AND THE POOR.

OF all ruminant animals, those of the cow kind deserve the first rank, both for their size, their beauty, and their services. The horse is more properly an animal belonging to the rich; the sheep chiefly thrives in a flock, and requires attendance; but the cow is more especially the poor man's pride, his riches, and his support. There are many of our peasantry that have no other possession but a cow; and even of the advantages resulting from this most useful creature, the poor are but the nominal possessors. Its flesh they cannot pretend to taste, since then their whole

¹ Goldsmith repeats the story of the dogs and dog-butchers of China in the article on dogs ('An. Nat.,' vol. iii., p. 296), as follows:—"All over China there are dog-butchers, and shambles appointed for selling their flesh. In Canton, particularly, there is a street appointed for that purpose; and what is very extraordinary, wherever a dog-butcher appears, all the dogs of the place are sure to be in full cry after him; they know their enemy, and persecute him as far as they are able." He retailed this in conversation with Dr. Johnson before the 'Animated Nature' was published (Boswell, Standard Lib. edit. ii. 219), and Johnson expressed his doubt of it. Johnson evidently thought it was one of those wonderful stories which, as he intimated upon another occasion, had better be left out of the natural history. But, as we see, Goldy was so sure of his "fact" that he inserted it in two places.—ED.

² From the other part of the article upon the zebra it appears that our naturalist studied the animal at the Queen's menagerie, Buckingham-gate, and upon one occasion nearly got kicked for his pains.—ED.

riches are at once destroyed; its calf they are obliged to fatten for sale, since veal is a delicacy they could not make any pretensions to; its very milk is wrought into butter and cheese for the tables of their masters; while they have no share even in their own possession, but the choice of their market. I cannot bear to hear the rich crying out for liberty, while they thus starve their fellow creatures, and feed them up with an imaginary good, while they monopolize the real benefits of nature.—Vol. iii., p. 8.

SHEEP, AND SHEPHERDS.

THOSE animals that take refuge under the protection of man, in a few generations become indolent and helpless. Having lost the habit of self-defence, they seem to lose also the instincts of nature. The sheep, in its present domestic state, is of all animals the most defenceless and inoffensive. With its liberty it seems to have been deprived of its swiftness and cunning; and what in the ass might rather be called patience, in the sheep appears to be stupidity. With no one quality to fit it for self-preservation, it makes vain efforts at all. Without swiftness, it endeavours to fly; and without strength, sometimes offers to oppose. * * * But we are not to impute to Nature the formation of an animal so utterly unprovided against its enemies, and so unfit for defence. The moufflon, which is the sheep in a savage state, is a bold, fleet creature, able to escape from the greater animals by its swiftness, or to oppose the smaller kinds with the arms it has received from Nature. It is by human art alone that the sheep is become the tardy defenceless creature we find it. Every race of quadrupeds might easily be corrupted by the same allurements by which the sheep has been thus debilitated and depressed. While undisturbed, and properly supplied, none are found to set any bounds to their appetite. They pursue their food while able, and continue to graze, till they often die of disorders occasioned by too much fatness. But it is very different with them in a state of nature: they are in the forest surrounded by dangers, and alarmed with unceasing hostilities; they are pursued every hour

from one tract of country to another; and spend a great part of their time in attempts to avoid their enemies. Thus constantly exercised, and continually practising all the arts of defence and escape, the animal at once preserves its life and native independence, together with its swiftness, and the slender agility of its form. * * * Nor is the sheep, when bred up tame in the house, and familiarized with its keepers, less obstinately absurd: from being dull and timid, it then acquires a degree of pert familiarity; butts with its head, becomes mischievous, and shows itself every way unworthy of being singled out from the rest of the flock. Thus it seems rather formed for slavery than friendship; and framed more for the necessities than the amusements of mankind. There is but one instance in which the sheep shows any attachment to its keeper; and that is seen rather on the continent, than among us in Great Britain. What I allude to is, their following the sound of the shepherd's pipe. Before I had seen them trained in this manner, I had no conception of those descriptions in the old pastoral poets, of the shepherd leading his flock from one country to another. As I had been used only to see these harmless creatures driven before their keepers, I supposed that all the rest was but invention: but in many parts of the Alps, and even some provinces of France, the shepherd and his pipe are still continued, with true antique simplicity.¹ The flock is regularly penned every evening, to preserve them from the wolf; and the shepherd returns homeward at sun-set, with his sheep following him, and seemingly pleased with the sound of the pipe, which is blown with a reed, and resembles the chanter² of a bag-pipe. In this manner, in those countries that still continue poor, the Arcadian life is preserved in all its former purity; but in countries where a greater inequality of conditions prevail, the shepherd is generally some poor wretch who attends a flock from which he is to derive no benefits, and only guards those luxuries which he is not fated to share.—Vol. iii., pp. 38-43.

¹ A reminiscence of the author's wanderings on the continent, about 1755: see our 'Life,' vol. i., p. 13.—ED.

² So in the originals. Perhaps we should read that the sound resembles the *chant* of a bag-pipe.—ED.

THE ENGLISH STAG.

THE usual colour of the stag in England is red; nevertheless, the greater number in other countries are brown. There are some few that are white; but these seem to have obtained this colour in a former state of domestic tameness. Of all the animals that are natives of this climate, there are none that have such a beautiful eye as the stag: it is sparkling, soft, and sensible. His senses of smelling and hearing are in no less perfection. When he is in the least alarmed, he lifts the head and erects the ears, standing for a few minutes as if in a listening posture. Whenever he ventures upon some unknown ground, or quits his native covering, he first stops at the skirt of the plain to examine all around; he next turns against the wind to examine by the smell if there be any enemy approaching. If a person should happen to whistle or call out, at a distance, the stag is seen to stop short in his slow measured pace, and gazes upon the stranger with a kind of awkward admiration: if the cunning animal perceives neither dogs nor fire-arms preparing against him, he goes forward, quite unconcerned, and slowly proceeds without offering to fly. Man is not the enemy he is most afraid of; on the contrary, he seems to be delighted with the sound of the shepherd's pipe; and the hunters sometimes make use of that instrument to allure the poor animal to his destruction.—Vol. iii., pp. 104, 105.

THE LION.

THE length of the hair in many parts, and the shortness of it in others, serves a good deal to disguise this animal's real figure. The breast, for instance, appears very broad, but in reality it is as narrow and contracted in proportion as that of the generality of dogs and horses. For the same reason, the tail seems to be of an equal thickness from one end to the other, on account of the inequality of the hair with which it is encompassed; it being shorter near the insertion, where the flesh and bones are large, and growing

longer in proportion as its real thickness lessens towards the point, where it ends in a tuft. The hair about the neck and breast is not different from that on the rest of the body, except in the length of it; nor is each hair pointed as in most other animals, but of an equal thickness from one end to the other. The neck is very strong, but not composed of one solid bone, as Aristotle has imagined: on the contrary, though very short and muscular, it has as many bones as the camel or the horse; for it is universal to all quadrupeds to have seven joints in the neck; and not one of them have either more or less. However, the muscles in the neck of the lion, that tie the bones together, are extremely strong, and have somewhat the appearance of bones; so that ancient authors, who have treated of this animal, have mistaken the whole for a single bone. The tongue is rough, and beset with prickles as hard as a cat's claws; these have the grain turned backwards; so that it is probable a lion, if it should attempt to lick a man's hand, as we are told it sometimes does, would tear off the skin. The eyes are always bright and fiery; nor even in death does this terrible look forsake them. In short, the structure of the paws, teeth, eyes, and tongue, are the same as in a cat; and also in the inward parts these two animals so nearly resemble each other, that the anatomist's chief distinction arises merely from the size. * * * Naturalists have hitherto been greatly mistaken as to the length of its existence. The great he-lion, called Pompey, which died in the year 1760, was known to have been in the Tower for above seventy years; and one lately died there, which was brought from the river Gambia, that died above sixty-three. The lion, therefore, is a very long-lived animal; and, very probably, in his native forests, his age exceeds even that of man himself.¹—Vol. iii., pp. 220-230.

¹ Our author took some pains to study the lion through certain visits he says he paid to the collection then kept in the Tower of London. He there, also, he tells us, actually measured one of the tigers, and so was able to modify Buffon's conclusions with regard to that animal. His studies at the Tower likewise enabled him to correct Buffon's estimate of twenty or twenty-two years as the limit of age attained by the lion, as appears in the latter part of the above extract.—ED.

PARENTAL AFFECTION OF THE FOX.

WHEN she [the female fox] finds the place of her retreat discovered, and that her young have been disturbed during her absence, she removes them one after the other in her mouth, and endeavours to find them out a place of better security. A remarkable instance of this animal's parental affection happened while I was writing this history, in the county of Essex.¹ A she-fox that had, as it should seem, but one cub, was unkennelled by a gentleman's hounds, near Chelmsford, and hotly pursued. In such a case, when her own life was in imminent peril, one would think it was not a time to consult the safety of her young; however, the poor animal, braving every danger, rather than leave her cub behind to be worried by the dogs, took it up in her mouth, and ran with it in this manner for some miles. At last, taking her way through a farmer's yard, she was assaulted by a mastiff, and at last obliged to drop her cub, which was taken up by the farmer. I was not displeased to hear that this faithful creature escaped the pursuit, and at last got off in safety.—Vol. iii., p. 330.

CONCLUSION UPON QUADRUPEDS.

WITH this last described and last discovered animal [the Gerbua, or Jerboa] I shall conclude the history of quadrupeds, which of all parts of natural knowledge seems to have been described the most accurately. As these, from their figure, as well as their sagacity, bear the nearest resemblance to man, and from their uses or enmities are the most respectable parts of the inferior creation, so it was his interest, and his pleasure, to make himself acquainted with their history. It is probable therefore that time, which enlarges the sphere of our knowledge in other parts of learning, can add but very little to this. The addition of a new quadruped to the catalogue already known,

¹ It was mostly written, however, in Middlesex, at a farmhouse at Hyde, on the Edgware Road, "near to the six-mile stone" from London, as will be seen by the notes at pp. 462-464, vol. i.—ED.

is of no small consequence, and happens but seldom ; for the number of all is so few, that wherever a new one is found, it becomes an object worthy our best attention. It may take refuge in its native deserts from our pursuits, but not from our curiosity.

But it is very different with the inferior ranks of the creation ; the classes of birds, of fishes, and of insects, are all much more numerous, and more incompletely known. The quadruped is possessed of no arts of escaping, which we are not able to overcome ; but the bird removes itself by its swiftness, the fishes find protection in their native element, and insects are secured in their minuteness, numbers, and variety. Of all these therefore, we have but a very inadequate catalogue, and though the list be already very large, yet every hour is adding to its extent.

In fact, all knowledge is pleasant only as the object of it contributes to render man happy ; and the services of quadrupeds being so very necessary to him in every situation, he is particularly interested in their history : without their aid, what a wretched and forlorn creature would he have been ! the principal part of his food, his clothing, and his amusements are derived wholly from them, and he may be considered as a great lord, sometimes cherishing his humble dependants, and sometimes terrifying the refractory, to contribute to his delight and conveniences.

The horse and the ass, the elephant, the camel, the lama, and the rein-deer contribute to ease his fatigues, and to give him that swiftness which he wants from nature. By their assistance, he changes place without labour ; he attains health without weariness ; his pride is enlarged by the elegance of equipage, and other animals are pursued with a certainty of success. It were happy indeed for man, if, while converting these quadrupeds to his own benefit, he had not turned them to the destruction of his fellow-creatures ; he has employed some of them for the purposes of war, and they have conformed to his noxious ambition with but too fatal an obedience.

The cow, the sheep, the deer, and all their varieties are necessary to him, though in a different manner. Their flesh makes the principal luxuries of his table, and their wool or skins the chief ornament of his person. Even

those nations that are forbid to touch any thing that has life, cannot wholly dispense with their assistance. The milk of these animals makes a principal part of the food of every country, and often repairs those constitutions that have been broken by disease or intemperance.

The dog, the cat, and the ferret, may be considered as having deserted from their fellow-quadrupeds, to list themselves under the conduct and protection of man. At his command they exert all their services against such animals as they are capable of destroying, and follow them into places where he himself wants abilities to pursue.

As there is thus a numerous tribe that he has taken into protection, and that supplies his necessities and amusements, so there is also a still more numerous one, that wages an unequal combat against him, and thus call forth his courage and his industry. Were it not for the lion, the tiger, the panther, the rhinoceros, and the bear, he would scarce know his own powers, and the superiority of human art over brutal fierceness. These serve to excite, and put his nobler passions into motion. He attacks them in their retreat, faces them with resolution, and seldom fails of coming off with a victory. He thus becomes hardier and better in the struggle, and learns to know and to value his own superiority.

As the last mentioned animals are called forth by his boldest efforts, so the numerous tribe of the smaller vermin kind excite his continual vigilance and caution; his various arts and powers have been no where more manifest, than in the extirpation of those that multiply with such prodigious fecundity. Neither their agility nor their minuteness can secure them from his pursuits; and though they may infest, they are seldom found materially to injure him.

In this manner we see, that not only human want is supplied, but that human wit is sharpened, by the humbler partners of man in the creation. By this we see, that not only their benefits, but their depredations are useful, and that it has wisely pleased Providence to place us like victors in a subdued country, where we have all the benefit of conquest, without being so secure, as to run into the sloth and excesses of a certain and undisturbed pos-

session. It appears, therefore, that those writers who are continually finding immediate benefit in every production, see but half way into the general system of nature. Experience must every hour inform us, that all animals are not formed for our use; but we may be equally well assured, that those conveniences which we want from their friendship, are well repaid by that vigilance which we procure from their enmity.—Vol. iv., pp. 353-358.

FROM THE 'HISTORY OF BIRDS.'

THE MIGRATION OF BIRDS.

BIRDS in general, though they have so much to fear from man and each other, are seldom scared away from their usual haunts. Although they be so perfectly formed for a wandering life, and are supplied with powers to satisfy all their appetites, though never so remote from the object, though they are so well fitted for changing place with ease and rapidity, yet the greatest number remain contented in the districts where they have been bred, and by no means exert their desires in proportion to their endowments. The rook, if undisturbed, never desires to leave his native grove; the black-bird still frequents its accustomed hedge; and the red-breast, though seemingly mild, claims a certain district, from whence he seldom moves, but drives out every one of the same species from thence without pity. They are excited to migration by no other motives but those of fear, climate, or hunger. It must be from one of these powerful motives that the birds which are called birds of passage, every year forsake us for some time, and make their regular and expected returns.

Nothing has more employed the curiosity of mankind than these annual emigrations; and yet few subjects continue so much involved in darkness. It is generally believed, that the cause of their retreat from these parts of Europe is either a scarcity of food at certain seasons, or the want of a secure asylum from the persecution of man, during the time of courtship and bringing up their young.

Thus the starling, in Sweden, at the approach of winter, finding subsistence no longer in that kingdom, descends every year into Germany; and the hen chaffinches of the same country are seen every year to fly through Holland in large flocks, to pass their winter in a milder climate. Others, with a more daring spirit, prepare for journeys that might intimidate even human perseverance. Thus the quails in spring forsake the burning heats of Africa for the milder sun of Europe; and, when they have passed the summer with us, steer their flight back to enjoy in Egypt the temperate air, which then begins to be delightful. This with them seems a preconcerted undertaking. They unite together in some open place, for some days before their departure, and, by an odd kind of chattering, seem to debate on the method to proceed. When their plan is resolved upon, they all take flight together, and often appear in such numbers, that, to mariners at sea, they seem like a cloud that rests upon the horizon. The boldest, strongest, and by far the greatest number, make good their intention; but many there are who, not well apprised of their own force for the undertaking, grow weary in the way and, quite spent by the fatigues of their flight, drop down into the sea, and sometimes upon deck, thus becoming an easy prey to the mariner.

Of the vast quantity of water-fowl that frequent our shores, it is amazing to reflect how few are known to breed here. The cause that principally urges them to leave this country seems to be not merely the want of food, but the desire of a secure retreat. Our country is too populous for birds so shy and timid as the greatest number of these are. When great part of our island was a mere waste, an uncultivated tract of woods and marshes, many species of birds which now migrate remained with us throughout the year. The great heron and the crane, that have now forsaken this country, in former times bred familiarly in our marshes, and seemed to animate our fens. Their nests, like those of most cloven-footed water-fowl, were built on the ground, and exposed to every invader. But as rural economy increased, these animals were more and more disturbed. Before they had little to fear, as the surrounding marsh defended them from all the carnivorous quadrupeds,

and their own strength from birds of prey; but upon the intrusion of man, and by a long series of alarms, they have at length been obliged to seek, during the summer, some lonely habitation, at a safe distance from every destroyer.—Vol. v., pp. 31-34.

EAGLES IN THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

THE eagle is * * * at all times a formidable neighbour; but peculiarly when bringing up its young. It is then that the female, as well as the male, exert all their force and industry to supply their young. Smith, in his 'History of Kerry,' relates that a poor man in that country got a comfortable subsistence for his family, during a summer of famine, out of an eagle's nest, by robbing the eaglets of food, which was plentifully supplied by the old ones. He protracted their assiduity beyond the usual time, by clipping the wings, and retarding the flight of the young; and very probably also, as I have known myself, by so tying them as to increase their cries, which is always found to increase the parent's dispatch to procure them provision. It was lucky, however, that the old eagles did not surprise the countryman as he was thus employed, as their resentment might have been dangerous. It happened some time ago, in the same country, that a peasant resolved to rob the nest of an eagle, that had built in a small island in the beautiful lake of Killarney. He accordingly stripped, and swam in upon the island while the old ones were away; and, robbing the nest of its young, he was preparing to swim back, with the eaglets tied in a string; but, while he was yet up to his chin in the water, the old eagles returned, and, missing their young, quickly fell upon the plunderer, and, in spite of all his resistance, dispatched him with their beaks and talons. In order to extirpate these pernicious birds, there is a law in the Orkney Islands which entitles any person that kills an eagle to a hen out of every house in the parish in which the plunderer is killed.—Vol. v., pp. 91, 92.

ENGLISH AND FRENCH GAME LAWS.

IN England, where the partridge is much scarcer, and a great deal dearer, it is still a favourite delicacy at the tables of the rich; and the desire of keeping it to themselves, has induced them to make laws for its preservation, no way harmonizing with the general spirit of English legislation. What can be more arbitrary than to talk of preserving the game; which, when defined, means no more than that the poor shall abstain from what the rich have taken a fancy to keep for themselves? If these birds could, like a cock or a hen, be made legal property, could they be taught to keep within certain districts, and only feed on those grounds that belong to the man whose entertainments they improve, it then might, with some show of justice, be admitted, that as a man fed them so he might claim them. But this is not the case, nor is it in any man's power to lay a restraint upon the liberty of these birds, that, when let loose, put no limits to their excursions. They feed every where; upon every man's ground; and no man can say, these birds are fed only by me. Those birds which are nourished by all, belong to all; nor can any one man, or any set of men, lay claim to them, when still continuing in a state of nature.

I never walked out about the environs of Paris, that I did not consider the immense quantity of game that was running almost tame on every side of me, as a badge of the slavery of the people; and what they wished me to observe as an object of triumph, I always regarded with a kind of secret compassion: yet this people have no game-laws for the remoter parts of the kingdom; the game is only preserved in a few places for the king; and is free in most places else. In England, the prohibition is general; and the peasant has not a right to what even slaves, as he is taught to call them, are found to possess.—Vol. v., pp. 207, 208.

THE RAVEN AND HIS TRICKS.

A RAVEN may be reclaimed to almost every purpose to which birds can be converted. He may be trained up for fowling like a hawk; he may be taught to fetch and carry like a spaniel; he may be taught to speak like a parrot; but the most extraordinary of all is, that he can be taught to sing like a man. I have heard a raven sing the 'Black Joke' with great distinctness, truth, and humour.¹ Indeed, when the raven is taken as a domestic he has many qualities that render him extremely amusing. Busy, inquisitive, and impudent, he goes every where, affronts and drives off the dogs, plays his pranks on the poultry, and is particularly assiduous in cultivating the good will of the cook-maid, who seems to be the favourite of the family. But then, with the amusing qualities of a favourite, he often also has the vices and defects. He is a glutton by nature, and a thief by habit. He does not confine himself to petty depredations on the pantry or the larder; he soars at more magnificent plunder; at spoils that he can neither exhibit nor enjoy; but which, like a miser, he rests satisfied with having the satisfaction of sometimes visiting and contemplating in secret. A piece of money, a tea-spoon, or a ring, are always tempting baits to his avarice; these he will silyly seize upon, and if not watched will carry to his favourite hole.—Vol. v., pp. 226, 227.

THE ROOKS IN THE TEMPLE GARDENS.

THE rook, as is well known, builds in woods and forests in the neighbourhood of man, and sometimes makes choice of groves in the very midst of cities for the place of its retreat and security. In these it establishes a kind of legal

¹ The 'Black Joke' was a low comic song in Hogarth's time (it figures at the head of a ballad-singer's sheet in the third plate of the 'Rake's Progress'). Later, the air, by reason of its spirit, became popular as a dance tune. Even now it survives, but with another name. It lives now in connexion with the 'Sprig of Shillelagh.' See *Notes and Queries*, 1883.—ED.

constitution, by which all intruders are excluded from coming to live among them, and none suffered to build but acknowledged natives of the place. I have often amused myself with observing their plan of policy from my window in the Temple,¹ that looks upon a grove where they have made a colony in the midst of the city. At the commencement of spring, the rookery, which during the continuance of winter seemed to have been deserted, or only guarded by about five or six, like old soldiers in a garrison, now begins to be once more frequented; and in a short time all the bustle and hurry of business is fairly commenced. Where these numbers resided during the winter is not easy to guess; perhaps in the trees of hedge-rows to be nearer their food. In spring, however, they cultivate their native trees; and, in the places where they were themselves hatched, they prepare to propagate a future progeny.

They keep together in pairs; and when the offices of courtship are over, they prepare for making their nests and laying. The old inhabitants of the place are all already provided; the nest which served them for years before, with a little trimming and dressing will serve very well again; the difficulty of nestling lies only upon the young ones who have no nest, and must therefore get up one as well as they can. But not only the materials are wanting, but also the place in which to fix it. Every part of a tree will not do for this purpose, as some branches may not be sufficiently forked; others may not be sufficiently strong; and still others may be too much exposed to the rockings of the wind. The male and female upon this occasion are, for some days, seen examining all the trees of the grove very attentively; and when they have fixed upon a branch that seems fit for their purpose, they continue to sit upon and observe it very sedulously for two or three days longer. The place being thus determined upon, they begin to gather the materials for their nest; such as sticks and fibrous roots, which they regularly dispose in the most substantial manner. But here a new and unexpected obstacle arises. It often happens that the young couple have made choice

¹ In Garden Court, we suppose, though our author had chambers in several other parts of the Temple at different times: see our 'Life,' p. 22.—ED.

of a place too near the mansion of an older pair, who do not choose to be incommoded by such troublesome neighbours. A quarrel therefore instantly ensues, in which the old ones are always victorious.

The young couple, thus expelled, are obliged again to go through the fatigues of deliberating, examining, and choosing; and having taken care to keep their due distance, the nest begins again, and their industry deserves commendation. But their alacrity is often too great in the beginning; they soon grow weary of bringing the materials of their nest from distant places; and they very easily perceive that sticks may be provided nearer home, with less honesty indeed, but some degree of address. Away they go, therefore, to pilfer as fast as they can; and wherever they see a nest unguarded, they take care to rob it of the very choicest sticks of which it is composed. But these thefts never go unpunished; and probably upon complaint being made there is a general punishment inflicted. I have seen eight or ten rooks come upon such occasions, and setting upon the new nest of the young couple all at once, tear it in pieces in a moment.

At length, therefore, the young pair find the necessity of going more regularly and honestly to work. While one flies to fetch the materials, the other sits upon the tree to guard it; and thus in the space of three or four days, with a skirmish now and then between, the pair have fitted up a commodious nest composed of sticks without, and of fibrous roots and long grass within. From the instant the female begins to lay, all hostilities are at an end; not one of the whole grove, that a little before treated her so rudely, will now venture to molest her; so that she brings forth her brood with patient tranquillity. Such is the severity with which even native rooks are treated by each other; but if a foreign rook should attempt to make himself a denizen of their society, he would meet with no favour; the whole grove would at once be up in arms against him, and expel him without mercy.—Vol. v., pp. 231-234.

TALKING PARROTS.

THE ease with which this bird is taught to speak, and the great number of words which it is capable of repeating, are no less surprising. We are assured, by a grave writer, that one of these was taught to repeat a whole sonnet from Petrarch; and that I may not be wanting in my instance, I have seen a parrot, belonging to a distiller, who had suffered pretty largely in his circumstances from an informer who lived opposite him, very ridiculously employed. This bird was taught to pronounce the ninth commandment, *Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbour*, with a very clear, loud, articulate voice. The bird was generally placed in its cage over against the informer's house, and delighted the whole neighbourhood with its persevering exhortations. * * * The extreme sagacity and docility of the bird may plead as the best excuse for those who spend whole hours in teaching their parrots to speak; and, indeed, the bird, on those occasions, seems the wisest animal of the two. It at first obstinately resists all instruction; but seems to be won by perseverance, makes a few attempts to imitate the first sounds, and when it has got one word distinct, all the succeeding come with greater facility. The bird generally learns most in those families where the master or mistress have the least to do; and becomes more expert, in proportion as its instructors are idly assiduous. In going through the towns of France some time since, I could not help observing how much plainer their parrots spoke than ours, and how very distinctly I understood their parrots speak French, when I could not understand our own, though they spoke my native language. I was at first for ascribing it to the different qualities of the two languages, and was for entering into an elaborate discussion on the vowels and consonants; but a friend that was with me solved the difficulty at once, by assuring me that the French women scarce did any thing else the whole day than sit and instruct their feathered pupils; and that the birds were thus distinct in their lessons in consequence of continual schooling.—Vol. v., pp. 270, 271, 275, 276.

SINGING BIRDS.

STILL descending from the larger to the smaller, we come to birds of the sparrow kind, or that class of beautiful little animals that, being less than the pigeon, go on diminishing till we arrive at the humming-bird, the smallest of the feathered creation. The birds which compose this class chiefly live in the neighbourhood of man, and are his greatest favourites. The falcon may be more esteemed, and the turkey more useful; but these he considers as servants, not as friends; as animals reclaimed merely to supply him with some of the conveniences of life: but these little painted songsters have his affections, as well from their beauty as their melody; it is this delightful class that fill his groves with harmony, and lift his heart to sympathize with their raptures. All the other classes are either mute or screaming; it is this diminutive tribe only that have voices equal to the beauty of their figures; equally adapted to rejoice man, and delight each other.

As they are the favourites of man, so they are chiefly seen near him. All the great birds dread his vicinity, and keep to the thickest darkness of the forest, or the brow of the most craggy precipice: but these seldom resort to the thicker parts of the wood; they keep near its edges, in the neighbourhood of cultivated fields; in the hedge-rows of farm-grounds; and even in the yard, mixing with the poultry.

It must be owned, indeed, that their living near man is not a society of affection on their part, as they approach inhabited grounds merely because their chief provision is to be found there. In the depth of the desert, or the gloom of the forest, there is no grain to be picked up; none of these tender buds that are so grateful to their appetites; insects, themselves, that make so great a part of their food, are not found there in abundance; their natures being unsuited to the moisture of the place. As we enter, therefore, deeper into uncultivated woods, the silence becomes more profound; every thing carries the look of awful stillness; there are none of those warblings, none of those murmurs that awaken attention, as near the habitations of

men ; there is nothing of that confused buzz, formed by the united though distant voices of quadrupeds and birds ; but all is profoundly dead and solemn. Now and then, indeed, the traveller may be roused from this lethargy of life, by the voice of an heron, or the scream of an eagle ; but his sweet little friends and warblers have totally forsaken him.—Vol. v., pp. 299, 300.

SONG-BIRDS AND BIRD-CATCHERS.

THERE are several persons who get a livelihood by watching the seasons when our small birds begin to migrate from one country to another, and by taking them with nets in their passage. The birds are found to fly, as the bird-catchers term it, chiefly during the month of October, and part of September and November. There is also another flight in March, which is much less considerable than that in autumn. Nor is it less remarkable, that several of these species of flight-birds make their appearance in regular succession. The pippit, for instance, begins its flight every year about Michaelmas, when they are caught in greatest number. To this the wood-lark succeeds, and continues its flight till towards the middle of October ; other birds follow, but are not so punctually periodical ; the green-finch does not begin till the frost obliges it to seek for a change. These birds, during those months, fly from day-break till twelve at noon ; and there is afterwards a small flight from two till night. Such are the seasons of the migration of the birds, which have been usually considered as stationary, and on these occasions they are caught in great abundance, as they are on their journey. But the same arts used to allure them upon other occasions would be utterly fruitless, as they avoid the nets with the most prudent circumspection. The autumnal flight probably consists of the parents conducting their new-fledged young to those places where there is sufficient provision, and a proper temperament¹ of the air during the winter season ; and their return in spring is obviously from an attachment to the place which was found so convenient before for the purposes of nestling and incubation.

¹ So the earliest editions. Cunningham reads “ temperature.”—ED.

Autumn is the principal season when the bird-catcher employs his art to catch these wanderers. His nets are a most ingenious piece of mechanism, being generally twelve yards and a half long, and two yards and a half wide, and so contrived as from a flat position to rise on each side, and clap over the birds that are decoyed to come between them. The birds in their passage are always observed to fly against the wind; hence there is a great contention among the bird-catchers which shall gain the wind; for example, if it is westerly, the bird-catcher who lays his nets most to the east, is sure of the most plentiful sport if his call-birds are good. For this purpose, he generally carries five or six linnets, two gold-finches, two green-finches, one wood-lark, one red-poll, and perhaps a bull-finch, a yellow-hammer, a tit-lark, and an aberdavine: these are placed at small distances from the nets in little cages. He has besides what he calls his flur-birds,¹ which are placed upon a moveable perch, which the bird-catcher can raise at pleasure by means of a string; and these he always lifts gently up and down as the wild bird approaches. But this is not enough to allure the wild bird down; it must be called by one of the call-birds in the cages; and these, by being made to moult prematurely in a warm cage, call louder and better than those that are wild and at freedom. There even appears a malicious joy in these call-birds to bring the wild ones into the same state of captivity, while at the same time their call is louder and their plumage brighter than in a state of nature. Nor is their sight or hearing less exquisite, far exceeding that of the bird-catcher; for the instant the wild birds are perceived, notice is given by one to the rest of the call-birds, who all unite in the same tumultuous extasy of pleasure. The call-birds do not sing upon these occasions as a bird does in a chamber, but incite the wild ones by short jerks, which, when the birds are good, may be heard at a great distance. The allurements of this call is so great, that the wild bird hearing it is stopped in its most rapid flight; and, if not already acquainted with the nets, lights boldly within twenty yards perhaps of the bird-catcher,

¹ Printed "flur-birds" in the first and Turton's editions, but perhaps it is a misprint for slur birds, from slurr, to trick.—ED.

and on a spot which it would otherwise have quite disregarded. This is the opportunity wished for, and the bird-catcher pulling a string, the nets on each side rise in an instant, and clap directly down on the poor little unsuspecting visitant. Nay, it frequently happens that if half a flock only are caught, the remaining half will immediately afterwards light between the nets, and share the fate of their companions. Should only one bird escape, this unhappy survivor will also venture into danger till it is caught; such a fascinating power have the call-birds.

Indeed, it is not easy to account for the nature of this call, whether it be a challenge to combat, an invitation to food, or a prelude to courtship. As the call-birds are all males, and as the wild birds that attend to their voice are most frequently males also, it does not seem that love can have any influence in their assiduity. Perhaps the wild females, in these flights, attend to and obey the call below, and their male companions of the flight come down to bear them company. If this be the case, and that the females have unfaithfully led their mates into the nets, they are the first that are punished for their infidelity; the males are only made captives for singing; while the females are indiscriminately killed, and sold to be served up to the tables of the delicate.

Whatever be the motives that thus arrest a flock of birds in their flight, whether they be of gallantry or of war, it is certain that the small birds are equally remarkable for both. It is, perhaps, the genial desire that inspires the courage of most animals; and that being greatest in the males, gives them a greater degree of valour than the females. Small birds, being extremely amorous, are remarkably brave. However contemptible these little warriors are to larger creatures, they are often but too formidable to each other; and sometimes fight till one of them yields up his life with the victory. But their contentions are sometimes of a gentler nature. Two male birds shall strive in song till, after a long struggle, the loudest shall entirely silence the other. During these contentions, the female sits an attentive silent auditor, and often rewards the loudest songster with her company during the season.—
Vol. v., pp. 302-307.

ALLEGED CHASTITY OF BIRDS.

ADDISON, in some beautiful Latin lines, inserted in the 'Spectator,'¹ is entirely of opinion that birds observe a strict chastity of manners, and never admit the caresses of a different tribe.

"Chaste are their instincts, faithful is their fire,
No foreign beauty tempts to false desire:
The snow-white vesture, and the glittering crown,
The simple plumage, or the glossy down,
Prompt not their love. The patriot bird pursues
His well acquainted tints, and kindred hues.
Hence through their tribes no mix'd polluted flame,
No monster breed to mark the groves with shame:
But the chaste blackbird, to its partner true,
Thinks black alone is beauty's favourite hue:
The nightingale, with mutual passion blest,
Sings to its mate, and nightly charms the nest:
While the dark owl, to court his partner flies,
And owns his offspring in their yellow eyes."

But whatever may be the poet's opinion, the probability is against this fidelity among the smaller tenants of the grove. The great birds are much more true to their species than these; and, of consequence, the varieties among them are more few. Of the ostrich, the cassowary, and the eagle, there are but few species; and no arts that man can use, could probably induce them to mix with each other.

But it is otherwise with the small birds we are describing; it requires very little trouble to make a species between a goldfinch and a canary-bird, between a linnet and a lark. They breed frequently together; and produce a race not, like the mules among quadrupeds, incapable of breeding again, for this motley mixture are as fruitful as their parents. What is so easily done by art, very probably often happens in a state of nature; and when the male cannot find a mate of his own species, he flies to one of another, that, like him, has been left out in pairing. This some historians think may have given rise to the great variety of small birds that are seen among us.—Vol. v., pp. 311-313.

¹ No. 421 of the 'Spectator.' See Goldsmith's translation also given in the Poems, vol. ii., p. 135.—ED.

THE NIGHTINGALE.

THIS most famous of the feathered tribe visits England in the beginning of April, and leaves us in August. It is found but in some of the southern parts of the country, being totally unknown in Scotland, Ireland, or North Wales.¹ They frequent thick hedges and low coppices, and generally keep in the middle of the bush, so that they are rarely seen. They begin their song in the evening, and generally continue it for the whole night. For weeks together, if undisturbed, they sit upon the same tree; and Shakespeare rightly describes the nightingale sitting nightly in the same place, which I have frequently observed she seldom parts from.²

From Pliny's description,³ we should be led to believe this bird possessed of a persevering strain; but, though it is in fact so with the nightingale in Italy, yet in our hedges in England, the little songstress is by no means so liberal of her music. Her note is soft, various, and interrupted; she seldom holds it without a pause above the time that one can count twenty.⁴ The nightingale's pausing song would be the proper epithet for this bird's music with us, which is more pleasing than the warbling of any other bird, because it is heard at a time when all the rest are silent.—Vol. v., pp. 327-328.

¹ Nevertheless, Goldsmith alludes to the nightingale in his 'Deserted Village' (l. 124), a circumstance constituting one of the arguments of those who contend that Auburn was in England. The answer of the other side, however, is that "the robin is the Irish nightingale." See 'Poems,' Appendix, p. 141, vol. ii. And see also Goldsmith on the red-breast in the next article —ED.

² "Nightly she sings on yon pomegranate-tree."

Romeo and Juliet, iii., sc. v., l. 4.—ED.

³ The author had quoted Pliny's description just previously. In the Preface (see p. 188), Goldsmith says that he once purposed translating that work. See also *ante*, p. 192.—ED.

⁴ Goldsmith and Pliny both admit that it is only the male bird that sings, yet both, with the poets, Shakspeare at their head, speak of "her note," &c.—ED.

THE RED-BREAST.

BUT there is a little bird, rather celebrated for its affection to mankind than its singing, which however, in our climate, has the sweetest note of all others. The reader already perceives that I mean the red-breast, the well known friend of man, that is found in every hedge, and makes it vocal. The note of other birds is louder, and their inflections more capricious; but this bird's voice is soft, tender, and well-supported; and the more to be valued as we enjoy it the greatest part of the winter. If the nightingale's song has been compared to the fiddle, the red-breast's voice has all the delicacy of the flute.—Vol. v., p. 332.

THE LARK, CAPTIVE AND FREE.

INDEED, the music of every bird in captivity produces no very pleasing sensations; it is but the mirth of a little animal insensible of its unfortunate situation; it is the landscape, the grove, the golden break of day, the contest upon the hawthorn, the fluttering from branch to branch, the soaring in the air, and the answering of its young, that gives the bird's song its true relish. These united, improve each other, and raise the mind to a state of the highest, yet most harmless exultation. Nothing can in this situation of mind be more pleasing than to see the lark warbling upon the wing; raising its note as it soars until it seems lost in the immense heights above us; the note continuing, the bird itself unseen; to see it then descending with a swell as it comes from the clouds, yet sinking by degrees as it approaches its nest, the spot where all its affections are centred; the spot that has prompted all this joy.—Vol. v., pp. 333-334.

THE SWALLOWS.—EDIBLE BIRDS'-NESTS.

EARLY, therefore, in the spring, when the returning sun begins to rouse the insect tribe from their annual state of

torpidity, when the gnat and the beetle put off their earthly robes and venture into air, the swallow then is seen returning from its long migration beyond the ocean, and making its way feebly to the shore. At first, with the timidity of a stranger, it appears but seldom, and flies but slowly and heavily along. As the weather grows warmer, and its insect supply increases, it then gathers greater strength and activity. But it sometimes happens that a rainy season, by repelling the insects, stints the swallow in its food; the poor bird is then seen slowly skimming along the surface of the ground, and often resting after a flight of a few minutes. In general, however, it keeps on the wing, and moving with a rapidity that nothing can escape. When the weather promises to be fair, the insect tribe feel the genial influence, and make bolder flights; at which time the swallow follows them in their aerial journeys, and often rises to imperceptible heights in the pursuit. When the weather is likely to be foul, the insects feel the first notices of it; and from the swallow's following low we are often apprised of the approaching change.

When summer is fairly begun, and more than a sufficient supply for sustaining the wants of nature every where offers, the swallow then begins to think of forming a progeny. The nest is built with great industry and art; particularly by the common swallow, which builds it on the tops of chimnies. The martin sticks it to the eaves of houses. The goat-sucker, as we are told, builds it on the bare ground. This nest is built with mud from some neighbouring brook, well tempered with the bill, moistened with water for the better adhesion; and still further kept firm, by long grass and fibres: within it is lined with goose feathers, which are ever the warmest and the neatest. The martin covers its nest at top, and has a door to enter at; the swallow leaves her's quite open. But our European nests are nothing to be compared with those the swallow builds on the coasts of China and Coromandel; the description of which I will give, in the plain honest phrase of Willoughby. "On the sea coast of the kingdom of China," says he, "a sort of party-coloured birds, of the shape of swallows, at a certain season of the year, which is their breeding-time, come out of the mid-land country to

the rocks, and from the foam or froth of the sea-water dashing against the bottom of the rocks, gather a certain clammy, glutinous matter, perchance the spawn of whales or other young fishes, of which they build their nests, wherein they lay their eggs and hatch their young. These nests the Chinese pluck from the rocks, and bring them, in great numbers, into the East-Indies to sell. They are esteemed, by gluttons, as great delicacies ; who, dissolving them in chicken or mutton-broth, are very fond of them ; far before oysters, mushrooms, or other dainty and lickorish morsels." What a pity this luxury hath not been introduced among us ; and then our great feasters might be enabled to eat a little more !¹—Vol. v., pp. 348-50.

THE BITTERN, OR MIRE-DRUM.

THOSE who have walked in an evening by the sedgy sides of unfrequented rivers, must remember a variety of notes from different water-fowl: the loud scream of the wild goose, the croaking of the mallard, the whining of the lap-wing, and the tremulous neighing of the jack-snipe. But of all those sounds, there is none so dismally hollow as the booming of the bittern. It is impossible for words to give those who have not heard this evening-call an adequate idea of its solemnity.² It is like the interrupted bellowing of a bull, but hollower and louder, and is heard at a mile's distance, as if issuing from some formidable being that resided at the bottom of the waters.

The bird, however, that produces this terrifying sound is not so big as an heron, with a weaker bill, and not above four inches long. It differs from the heron chiefly in its colour, which is in general of a paleish yellow, spotted and barred with black. Its wind-pipe is fitted to produce the

¹ Concerning *Cuscushew*, or edible birds'-nests, see also the 'Citizen of the World,' Letter XXXIII., p. 125, vol. iii.—ED.

² "The hollow-sounding bittern" points the desolation of our author's 'Deserted Village:' see vol. ii., p. 34, l. 44. This and the reference to come presently to "the place where I was a boy" (p. 238), will help to identify the 'Deserted Village' with the poet's own Lissoy.—ED.

sound for which it is remarkable; the lower part of it dividing into the lungs is supplied with a thin loose membrane, that can be filled with a large body of air and exploded at pleasure. These bellowing explosions are chiefly heard from the beginning of spring to the end of autumn; and, however awful they may seem to us, are the calls to courtship, or of connubial felicity.

From the loudness and solemnity of the note, many have been led to suppose, that the bird made use of external instruments to produce it, and that so small a body could never eject such a quantity of tone. The common people are of opinion, that it thrusts its bill into a reed that serves as a pipe for swelling the note above its natural pitch; while others, and in this number we find Thomson the poet, imagine that the bittern puts its head under water, and then violently blowing produces its boomings.¹ The fact is, that the bird is sufficiently provided by nature for this call; and it is often heard where there are neither reeds nor waters to assist its sonorous invitations.

It hides in the sedges by day, and begins its call in the evening, booming six or eight times, and then discontinuing for ten or twenty minutes to renew the same sound. This is a call it never gives but when undisturbed and at liberty. When its retreats among the sedges are invaded, when it dreads or expects the approach of an enemy, it is then perfectly silent. This call it has never been heard to utter when taken or brought up in domestic captivity; it continues under the control of man a mute forlorn bird, equally incapable of attachment or instruction. But, though its boomings are always performed in solitude, it has a scream which is generally heard upon the seizing its prey, and which is sometimes extorted by fear.

This bird, though of the heron-kind, is yet neither so destructive nor so voracious. It is a retired timorous animal, concealing itself in the midst of reeds and marshy places, and living upon frogs, insects, and vegetables; and

¹ Lines 21, 22, of 'Spring,' in 'The Seasons : '—

“ So that scarce
The bittern knows his tune, with bill engulph
To shake the sounding marsh.”—ED.

though so nearly resembling the heron in figure, yet differing much in manners and appetites.

* * * * *

It cannot be, therefore, from its voracious appetites, but its hollow boom, that the bittern is held in such detestation by the vulgar. I remember in the place where I was a boy with what terror this bird's note affected the whole village;¹ they considered it as the presage of some sad event; and generally found or made one to succeed it.—Vol. vi., pp. 1-4.

THE LESSONS OF BIRD-LIFE.

HAVING thus given a short history of birds, I own I cannot take leave of this most beautiful part of the creation without reluctance. These splendid inhabitants of air possess all those qualities than can sooth the heart and cheer the fancy. The brightest colours, the roundest forms, the most active manners, and the sweetest music. In sending the imagination in pursuit of these, in following them to the chirruping grove, the screaming precipice, or the glassy deep, the mind naturally lost the sense of its own situation, and, attentive to their little sports, almost forgot the TASK of describing them. Innocently to amuse the imagination in this dream of life is wisdom; and nothing is useless that, by furnishing mental employment, keeps us for a while in oblivion of those stronger appetites that lead to evil. But every rank and state of mankind may find something to imitate in those delightful songsters, and we may not only employ the time, but mend our lives by the contemplation. From their courage in defence of their young, and their assiduity in incubation, the coward may learn to be brave, and the rash to be patient. The inviolable attachment of some to their companions may give lessons of fidelity; and the connubial tenderness of others, be a monitor to the incontinent. Even those that are tyrants by nature never spread capricious destruction; and, unlike man, never inflict a pain but when urged by necessity.—Vol. vi., pp. 148, 149.

¹ See note, p. 236, *ante*.—ED.

FROM THE 'HISTORY OF FISHES.'

HAPPY SEA-GIRT ENGLAND.

HAPPY England! where the sea furnishes an abundant and luxurious repast, and the fresh waters an innocent and harmless pastime; where the angler, in cheerful solitude, strolls by the edge of the stream, and fears neither the coiled snake, nor the lurking crocodile; where he can retire at night, with his few trouts, to borrow the pretty description of old Walton, to some friendly cottage, where the landlady is good, and the daughter innocent and beautiful; where the room is cleanly, with lavender in the sheets, and twenty ballads stuck about the wall! There he can enjoy the company of a talkative brother sportsman, have his trouts dressed for supper, tell tales, sing old tunes, or make a catch! There he can talk of the wonders of nature with learned admiration, or find some harmless sport to content him, and pass away a little time, without offence to God, or injury to man!—Vol. vi., p. 351.

FROM 'OF FROGS, LIZARDS, AND SERPENTS.'

THE TOAD.—PREJUDICE.

IF we regard the figure of the Toad, there seems nothing in it that should disgust more than that of the frog. Its form and proportions are nearly the same; and it chiefly differs in colour, which is blacker, and its slow and heavy motion, which exhibits nothing of the agility of the frog: yet such is the force of habit, begun in early prejudice, that those who consider the one as a harmless, playful animal, turn from the other with horror and disgust. The frog is considered as a useful assistant, in ridding our grounds of vermin; the toad, as a secret enemy, that only wants an opportunity to infect us with its venom.¹

¹ Thomas Lupton, in the first and seventh books of his 'Thousand Notable Things,' treats of the toad-stone, or "jewel," which Shakspeare

The imagination, in this manner biassed by its terrors, paints out the toad in the most hideous colouring, and clothes it in more than natural deformity. Its body is broad; its back flat; covered with a dusky, pimpled hide; the belly is large and swagging; the pace laboured and crawling; its retreat gloomy and filthy; and its whole appearance calculated to excite disgust and horror: yet upon my first seeing a toad, none of all these deformities in the least, affected me with sensations of loathing: born, as I was, in a country where there are no toads, I had prepared my imagination for some dreadful object; but there seemed nothing to me more alarming in the sight, than in that of a common frog; and indeed, for some time, I mistook and handled the one for the other. When first informed of my mistake, I very well remember my sensations: I wondered how I had escaped with safety, after handling and dissecting a toad, which I had mistaken for a frog. I then began to lay in a fund of horror against the whole tribe, which, though convinced they are harmless, I shall never get rid of. My first imaginations were too strong not only for my reason, but for the conviction of my senses.—Vol. vii., pp. 91, 92.

THE SALAMANDER.

THE ancients have described a lizard that is bred from heat, that lives in the flames, and feeds upon fire as its proper nourishment. As they saw every other element, the air, the earth and water, inhabited, fancy was set to work to find or make an inhabitant in fire; and thus to people every part of nature. It will be needless to say that there is no such animal existing; and that, of all others, the modern salamander has the smallest affinity to such an abode.

says grows in the head of the toad ('As You Like It,' act ii. sc. 1), and which according to the superstition of that time possessed marvellous properties. Lupton says:—"You shall know whether the toad stone called *Crapandina* is the right and perfect stone or not: Hold the stone before a toad, so that he may see it; and if it be a right and true stone, the toad will leap toward it; and make as though he would snatch it from you. He envieth so much that a man should have that stone." (See p. 130, ed. 1627.)—ED.

Whether the animal that now goes by the name of the salamander be the same with that described by Pliny, is a doubt with me; but this is not a place for the discussion. It is sufficient to observe, that the modern salamander is an animal of the lizard kind, and under this name is comprehended a large tribe that all go by the same name. There have been not less than seven sorts of this animal described by Seba; and to have some idea of the peculiarity of their figure, if we suppose the tail of a lizard applied to the body of a frog, we shall not be far from precision. The common lizard is long, small and taper; the salamander, like the frog, has its eyes towards the back of the head; like the frog, its snout is round and not pointed, and its belly thick and swollen. The claws of its toes are short and feeble; its skin rough; and the tongue, unlike that of the smallest of the lizard kind, in which it is long and forked, is short, and adhering to the under jaw.

But it is not in figure that this animal chiefly differs from the rest of the lizard tribe; for it seems to differ in nature and conformation. In nature it is unlike, being a heavy, torpid animal; whereas the lizard tribe are active, restless, and ever in motion: in conformation it is unlike, as the salamander is produced alive from the body of its parent, and is completely formed the moment of its exclusion. It differs from them also in its general reputation of being venomous; however, no trials that have been hitherto made seem to confirm the truth of the report.—Vol. vii., pp. 139, 140.

COMBAT BETWEEN A SERPENT AND A BUFFALO.

IN the East Indies they [serpents] grow also to an enormous size; particularly in the Island of Java, where, we are assured, that one of them will destroy and devour a buffalo. In a letter, printed in the German Ephemerides, we have an account of a combat between an enormous serpent and a buffalo, by a person, who assures us, that he was himself a spectator. The serpent had for some time been waiting near the brink of a pool, in expectation of its prey; when a buffalo was the first that offered. Having

darted upon the affrighted animal, it instantly began to wrap it round with its voluminous twistings; and at every twist the bones of the buffalo were heard to crack almost as loud as the report of a cannon. It was in vain that the poor animal struggled and bellowed; its enormous enemy entwined it too closely to get free; till at length, all its bones being mashed to pieces, like those of a malefactor on the wheel, and the whole body reduced to one uniform mass, the serpent untwined its folds to swallow its prey at leisure. To prepare for this, and in order to make the body slip down the throat more glibly, it was seen to lick the whole body over, and thus cover it with its mucus. It then began to swallow it at that end that offered least resistance; while its length of body was dilated to receive its prey, and thus took in at once a morsel that was three times its own thickness.—Vol. vii., pp. 174, 175.

FROM THE 'HISTORY OF INSECTS.'

THE CATERPILLAR AND THE BUTTERFLY.

WHEN winter has disrobed the trees of their leaves, Nature then seems to have lost her insects. There are thousands of different kinds, with and without wings; which, though swarming at other seasons, then entirely disappear. Our fields are re-peopled, when the leaves begin to bud, by the genial influence of spring; and caterpillars, of various sorts, are seen feeding upon the promise of the year, even before the leaves are completely unfolded. Those caterpillars, which we then see, may serve to give us a view of the general means which Nature employs to preserve such a number of insects during that season when they can no longer find subsistence. It is known, by united experience, that all these animals are hatched from the eggs of butterflies; and those who observe them more closely, will find the fly very careful in depositing its eggs in those places where they are likely to be hatched with the greatest safety and success. During winter, therefore, the greatest number of caterpillars are in an egg state; and in

this lifeless situation, brave all the rigours and the humidity of the climate; and though often exposed to all its changes, still preserve the latent principles of life, which is more fully exerted at the approach of spring. That same power that pushes forth the budding leaf, and the opening flower, impels the insect into animation; and Nature at once seems to furnish the guest and the banquet. When the insect has found force to break its shell, it always finds its favourite aliment provided in abundance before it.—Vol. viii., pp. 7, 8.

A HINT FOR BEE-MASTERS.

ONE thing, however, it may be proper to observe, that a farm, or a country, may be over-stocked with bees, as with any other sort of animal; for a certain number of hives, always require a certain number of flowers to subsist on. When the flowers near home are rifled, then are these industrious insects seen taking more extensive ranges, but their abilities may be over taxed; and if they are obliged, in quest of honey, to go too far from home, they are over-wearied in the pursuit, they are devoured by birds, or beat down by the winds and rain.

For a knowledge of this, in some parts of France and Piedmont,¹ they have contrived, as I have often seen, a kind of floating bee-house.

They have on board one barge, threescore or a hundred bee-hives, well defended from the inclemency of an accidental storm; and with these, the owners suffer themselves to float gently down the river. As the bees are continually choosing their flowery pasture along the banks of the stream, they are furnished with sweets before unrifled; and thus a single floating bee-house yields the proprietor a considerable income. Why a method similar to this has never been adopted in England, where we have more gentle rivers, and more flowery banks, than in any other part of the world, I know not; certainly it might be turned to advantage, and yield the possessor a secure, though perhaps a moderate income.—Vol. viii., pp. 87, 88.

¹ See note at p. 214, *ante*.—ED.

FROM THE 'HISTORY OF THE ZOOPHYTES.'

THE POLYPUS.

WHOEVER has looked with care into the bottom of a wet ditch, when the water is stagnant, and the sun has been powerful, may remember to have seen many little transparent lumps of jelly, about the size of a pea, and flatted on one side; such also as have examined the under side of the broad-leaved weeds that grow on the surface of the water, must have observed them studded with a number of these little jelly-like substances, which were probably then disregarded, because their nature and history was unknown. These little substances however, were no other than living polypi gathered up into a quiescent state and seemingly inanimate, because either undisturbed,¹ or not excited by the calls of appetite to action. When they are seen exerting themselves they put on a very different appearance from that when at rest. To conceive a just idea of their figure, we may suppose the finger of a glove cut off at the bottom; we may suppose also several threads or horns planted round the edge like a fringe. The hollow of this finger will give us an idea of the stomach of the animal, the threads issuing forth from the edges may be considered as the arms or feelers, with which it hunts for its prey. The animal, at its greatest extent, is seldom seen above an inch and a half long, but it is much shorter when it is contracted and at rest; it is furnished neither with muscles nor rings, and its manner of lengthening or contracting itself, more resembles that of the snail, than worms, or any other insect.

* * * * *

When several polypi happen to fall upon the same worm, they dispute their common prey with each other. Two of them are often seen seizing the same worm at different ends, and dragging it at opposite directions with great force. It often happens that while one is swallowing its

¹ The word "undisturbed" is from Turton's edition. The first edition has "disturbed."—ED.

respective end, the other is also employed in the same manner, and thus they continue swallowing each his part, until their mouths meet together; they then rest, each for some time in this situation, till the worm breaks between them, and each goes off with his share; but it often happens, that a seemingly more dangerous combat ensues, when the mouths of both are thus joined upon one common prey together: the largest polypus then gapes and swallows his antagonist; but what is very wonderful, the animal thus swallowed seems to be rather a gainer by the misfortune. After it has lain in the conqueror's body for about an hour, it issues unhurt, and often in possession of the prey which had been the original cause of contention. How happy would it be for men, if they had as little to fear from each other!

* * * * *

Such are the more obvious properties of these little animals, but the most wonderful still remain behind. Their manner of propagation, or rather multiplication, has for some years been the astonishment of all the learned of Europe.¹ They are produced in as great a variety of manners as every species of vegetable. Some polypi are propagated from eggs, as plants are from their seed; some are produced by buds issuing from their bodies, as plants are produced by inoculation, while all may be multiplied by cuttings, and this to a degree of minuteness that exceeds even philosophical perseverance.

With respect to such of this kind as are hatched from the egg, little curious can be added, as it is a method of propagation so common to all the tribes of insect nature; but with regard to such as are produced like buds from their parent stem, or like cuttings from an original root, their history requires a more detailed explanation. If a polypus be carefully observed in summer, when these animals are chiefly active, and more particularly prepared for propagation, it will be found to burgeon forth from different parts of its body several tubercles or little knobs,

¹ Compare with the account of the polypus in the Introduction to Brookes's Natural History (Insects), in the Prefaces in the present volume.—ED.

which grow larger and larger every day ; after two or three days inspection, what at first appeared but a small excrecence takes the figure of a small animal, entirely resembling its parent, furnished with feelers, a mouth, and all the apparatus for seizing and digesting its prey. This little creature every day becomes larger, like the parent, to which it continues attached ; it spreads its arms to seize upon whatever insect is proper for aliment, and devours it for its own particular benefit ; thus it is possessed of two sources of nourishment, that which it receives from the parent by the tail, and that which it receives from its own industry by the mouth.

* * * * *

But we are not to suppose that the parent is capable of producing only one at a time, several young ones are thus seen at once, of different sizes, growing from its body, some just budding forth, others acquiring their perfect form, and others come to sufficient maturity, and just ready to drop from the original stem to which they had been attached for several days. But what is more extraordinary still, those young ones themselves that continue attached to their parent, are seen to burgeon, and propagate their own young ones also, each holding the same dependence upon its respective parent, and possessed of the same advantages that have been already described in the first connection. Thus we see a surprising chain of existence continued, and numbers of animals naturally produced without any union of the sexes, or other previous disposition of nature.—Vol. viii., pp. 181-190.

In this manner the polypus multiplies naturally ; but, one may take a much readier and shorter way to increase them, and this only by cutting them in pieces. Though cut into thousands of parts, each part still retains its vivacious quality, each shortly becomes a distinct and a complete polypus ; whether cut lengthways, or crossways, it is all the same ; this extraordinary creature seems a gainer by our endeavours, and multiplies by apparent destruction. The experiment has been tried, times without number, and still attended with the same success. Here, therefore, naturalists who have been blamed for the cruelty of their experiments upon living animals, may now boast

of their increasing animal life, instead of destroying it. The production of the polypus is a kind of philosophical generation. The famous Sir Thomas Brown hoped one day to be able to produce children by the same method as trees are produced. The polypus is multiplied in this manner; and every philosopher may thus, if he pleases, boast of a very numerous, though, I should suppose, a very useless progeny.—*On the Generation of Animals*, vol. ii., pp. 25, 26.

The American Medical Association is a body of physicians and surgeons, organized for the purpose of promoting the science and art of medicine, and of improving the health of the people. It is a body of men, who are engaged in the study and practice of medicine, and who are united together for the purpose of promoting the science and art of medicine, and of improving the health of the people. It is a body of men, who are engaged in the study and practice of medicine, and who are united together for the purpose of promoting the science and art of medicine, and of improving the health of the people.

A HISTORY OF ENGLAND

IN A

SERIES OF LETTERS

FROM A

NOBLEMAN TO HIS SON.

[SELECTED LETTERS.]

[Though Goldsmith never publicly acknowledged this work, he confessed the authorship to his friends. Percy testifies this in his biography, though he has not included the Nobleman's Letters, or the prefatory part of them, in his edition of Goldsmith's Works. There is other contemporary evidence of Goldsmith's authorship—Cooke's account of how the work was written (*European Magazine*, Aug. 1793, p. 95, quoted at p. 168) being part of this; but perhaps the most conclusive proof is Goldsmith's receipt to Newbery for payment for the work: see this receipt at p. 482, vol. i. These Letters, however, were attributed successively to Lords Chesterfield, Orrery, and Lyttelton (George). Until quite lately the latter lord had the credit of being their author, and editions have appeared bearing his name. It has been said that Lyttelton never denied the authorship. Yet Dr. Johnson's friend, the learned Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, who was intimately acquainted with his lordship, has the following in a letter to Mrs. Vesey, dated Feb. 19, 1766 ('Letters,' 1809, vol. iii. p. 274):—"To give the utmost possible satisfaction to your enquiry about the Letters which you mention, I asked Lord L—— himself; who assured me that he had never read them through, and moreover, seemed to be very clearly of opinion that he did not write them. Seriously, you may deny his being the author with the fullest certainty. It seems they were writ by Lord Corke." This passage is taken as having reference to these Nobleman's Letters and Lord George Lyttelton, though the editor of Mrs. Carter's letters, the Rev. M. Pennington, said he did not know what 'Letters' were referred to. The Lord Corke mentioned by Mrs. Carter would seem to have been he who died in 1762, a year and a half before the publication of the Nobleman's Letters.

The first edition was published in two vols. 12mo., June, 1764. Several other editions appeared in Goldsmith's lifetime, and several more, some with additions and continuations, after his death. Mr. Cunningham gave three of the Letters, but the present is the first considerable collection of the series into an edition of Goldsmith's Works. Our text is for the most part that of the "new edition" of 1770. A special preface (that at p. 252) having been written for this edition, no doubt we may assume that such alterations of text as it contains are the author's own.—ED.]

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND

IN A

SERIES OF LETTERS.¹

FROM A

NOBLEMAN TO HIS SON.

TO THE PUBLISHER.²

SIR,

As I perceive by the tenor of your publications, that you chiefly aim at the improvement of youth, if the following Letters are thought any-way conducive to that purpose, you have my permission to print them.

The first fifty-one letters, ending with these words—*avenged them of their enemies*—were written by a nobleman to his son, at the university, the rest are added, as you will easily perceive, by a much inferior hand; for they were drawn up by me.³ This I should not have attempted, but that the design would otherwise have been defective. With regard to my letters, therefore, little else can be said, but that I have endeavoured, as much as was in my power, to

¹ The title-page of the first edition read as follows:—“An /History/ of /England,/ in a/ Series of Letters/ from a/ Nobleman to his Son./ vol. i./

Nec minimum meruere decus, vestigia Græca,
Ausi deserere, et celebrare domestica facta.—HOR.

London,/ Printed for J. Newbery, at the Bible and Sun, St. Paul's Church-Yard/ MDCCLXIV.”—ED.

² This was the only preface to the first edition, 1764.—ED.

³ Letter LI. carried the history to the end of the reign of Queen Anne.—ED.

imitate the original. As to his Lordship's, I think it may be asserted, that they are written with more judgment, spirit, and accuracy than any which have yet appeared upon this subject. I am conscious, indeed, that they have been, for some time, handed about in manuscript; but it is presumed that this will not make a publication of them less acceptable, even to those who are possessed of a written copy.

I have observed in the schools about town,¹ that when masters set their scholars to read the History of England, they seem at a loss in their choice of an historian. The more voluminous works of this kind are quite unsuited to a juvenile capacity; the shorter abridgments are chiefly a crowded collection of facts, totally dry and unentertaining. These Letters may, probably, supply the defect; and I desire that the volumes may be sent, at my expense, to each of the schools mentioned in the inclosed paper.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

[PREFACE TO THE "NEW EDITION," 1770.]²

TO THE PUBLIC.

THE Editor cannot dismiss a new edition of this work, without expressing the pleasure he feels in its reception. It was at first ushered into the world with none of the usual methods of awakening curiosity, or biassing the judgment. Its author, as well as its editor, was, and still continues unknown. It appeared with very little splendour; scarce any expense was laid out in the publication, and that praise was studiously avoided which was only to be caught by pursuing.

However, under all these disadvantages, the work has

¹ Compare with the essay on Education in the 'Bee,' vol. ii. p. 400, and elsewhere.—ED.

² There were editions between the first, 1764, and this date, 1770, but these we have not been able to see. The "new edition" of 1770 no doubt passed through Goldsmith's hands, and perhaps this address "To the Public" was specially written for it.—ED.

succeeded beyond the Editor's most sanguine expectations ; if he may judge from the numbers which have been sold, and the commendations which have been given. Nor can it be a circumstance of small pleasure to him to think, that a performance, calculated chiefly to dispel the prejudice of party and soften the malevolence of faction, has had purchasers, at a time when almost every new publication that respects our history or constitution, tends to fix the one and inflame the other.

It is true that but very little of the merit is his own, and that he only applauds himself for triumphs which have been gained by another. However, he is willing to take to himself those advantages which are declined by the great personage who has only deserved them ; for the poor often think themselves very fine in those clothes which are thrown aside by their betters.

But, to speak more particularly of my own part of the work, I am not a little proud in hearing that the conclusion is not entirely contemptible, and that it does not fall very far short of the beginning. It was my aim to observe the perspicuity and conciseness of the original, and as his lordship seems to have taken Tacitus for his model, so I took him for mine. It was, in fact, no easy matter, in such a variety of materials as our history affords, to reject trivial particulars, and yet preserve a concatenation of events ; to crowd a multitude of facts into so small a compass, and yet not give the work the air of an index. In this all who have hitherto abridged our history have failed : how far the present work has succeeded posterity must be left to judge.

The first part of these Letters, as we have formerly observed, was written for the instruction of a young man of quality, who was then at college ; the Editor, therefore, is surprised with an objection usually made against them, that they are rather above the capacity of boys. If by boys be meant children, I grant it : the facts, stript of all ornament, may perhaps be most proper for them ; but, on the contrary, those who are rising up to manhood should be treated as men, and no works put into their hands but such as are capable of exercising their capacity, and which the most mature judgment would approve. I am well aware, that

many schoolmasters will prefer any of those little Histories of England that are written by way of question and answer, and think their boys making great advances while they are thus loading their memory without exercising their judgment: with these men no arguments will prevail; and I can only dismiss such with wishing that the professors were as respectable as the profession.

Once more, therefore, I must assert, that though the book is written to men, it will be a proper guide for the instruction of boys. "*Maxima debetur pueris reverentia*" is true, as well with regard to the books they should read as the examples they should see. In this, I flatter myself that they will find nothing here either to corrupt their morals or their style; no slavish tenets that abridge freedom and increase dependence; no enthusiastic rants that drive even virtue beyond the line of duty. Scarce any opinions are hazarded merely from their elegance or singularity; truth only seems to have guided the pen; and it is remarkable, that many of the tenets in these Letters, that at first publication seemed paradoxical, have been since illustrated by one of the most elegant commentators upon our constitution.¹

LETTER I.

[INTRODUCTORY.—ON THE STUDY OF HISTORY.]

DEAR CHARLES.—The accounts I received from Mr. ****, your tutor at Oxford, of your conduct and capacity, give me equal pleasure, both as a father and as a man. I own myself happy in thinking that society will one day reap the advantage of your improved abilities; but I confess myself vain, when I reflect on the care I have taken, and the honour I shall perhaps obtain from assisting their cultivation. Yes, my Charles, self-interest thus mixes with almost every virtue; my paternal vanity is, perhaps,

¹ Dr. Blackstone.—GOLDSMITH. [The first edition of the famous 'Commentaries on the Laws of England' was published at Oxford in 1765. Blackstone's chambers in the Temple were immediately below those of Goldsmith when the latter resided in Brick Court.—ED.]

greater than my regard for society in the present instance; but you should consider that the bad pride themselves in their folly; but good minds are vain of their virtues.¹

I need scarce repeat what I have so often observed, that your assiduity for a few years, in the early period of life, will give ease and happiness to the succeeding: a life spent in regularity and study, in college, will not only furnish the mind with proper materials, but fit it, by habit, for future felicity. Mathematics will teach you to think with closeness and precision, and the ancient poets will enlarge your imagination: from these two helps, and not from the subtleties of logic, or metaphysical speculations, the mind is at once strengthened and improved. Logic or metaphysics may give the theory of reasoning; but it is poetry and mathematics, though seemingly opposite, that practically improve and fit us for every rational enquiry.²

These were the studies I recommended as principally conducive to your improvement, and your letters alone are sufficient instances of your complying with my advice. I confess my fears in giving any future instructions on such topics to one who seems better conversant with them than his instructor: I therefore must leave a subject where my superiority at least may be contested.

But after all, my child, these studies are at best but ornaments of the mind, designed rather to polish or to fit it for higher improvements, than as materials to be employed in guiding our conduct as individuals, or members of society. There is a field that, in some measure, still lies untrodden before you, and from that alone true wisdom and real improvement can be expected: I mean history. From history, in a great measure, every advantage that improves the gentleman, or confirms the patriot, can be hoped for: it is that which must qualify you for becoming a proper member of the community; for filling that station in which you may hereafter be placed, with honour; and

¹ Compare the concluding words of chap. xv. of the 'Vicar of Wakefield.'—ED.

² Compare with Goldsmith's other utterances on mathematics and logic.—ED.

for giving, as well as deriving, new lustre to that illustrious assembly, to which, upon my decease, you have a right to be called.

Yet, still, nothing can be more useless than history in the manner in which it is generally studied, where the memory is loaded with little more than dates, names, and events. Simply to repeat the transaction is by some thought sufficient for every purpose; and a youth having been once applauded for his readiness in this way fancies himself a perfect historian. But the true use of history does not consist in being able to settle a genealogy, in quoting the events of an obscure reign, or the true epoch of a contested birth: this knowledge of facts hardly deserves the name of science: true wisdom consists in tracing effects to their causes. To understand history is to understand man, who is the subject. To study history is to weigh the motives, the opinions, the passions of mankind, in order to avoid a similitude of errors in ourselves, or profit by the wisdom of their example.

To study history in this manner may be begun at any age. Children can never be too soon treated as men. Those masters who allege the incapacity of tender years, only tacitly reproach their own: those who are incapable of teaching young minds to reason, pretend that it is impossible. The truth is, they are fonder of making their pupils talk well than think well; and much the greater number are better qualified to give praise to a ready memory than a sound judgment. The generality of mankind consider a multitude of facts as the real food of the mind, not as subjects proper to afford it exercise. From hence it proceeds that history, instead of teaching us to know ourselves, often only serves to raise our vanity, by the applause of the ignorant; or, what is more dangerous, by the self-delusion of untried vanity.

Assuming ignorance is, of all dispositions,¹ the most ridiculous: for in the same proportion as the real man of wisdom is preferable to the unlettered rustic, so much is the rustic superior to him who without learning imagines himself learned. It were better that such a man had never

¹ The first edition reads "all situations."—ED.

read, for then he might have been conscious of his weakness; but the half-learned man, relying upon his strength, seldom perceives his wants till he finds his deception past a cure.

Your labours in history have hitherto been rather confined to the words, than the facts, of your historical guides. You have read Xenophon or Livy, rather with a view of learning the dead languages in which they are written, than of profiting by the instructions which they afford. The time is now come for discontinuing the study of words for things; for exercising your judgment, and giving more room to reason than to fancy.

Above all things, I would advise you to consult the original historians in every relation. Abridgers, compilers, commentators, and critics, are in general only fit to fill the mind with unnecessary anecdotes, or lead its researches astray.¹ In the immensity of various relations, your care must be to select such as deserve to be known, because they serve to instruct; the end of your labour should not be to know in what year fools or savages committed their extravagancies, but by what methods they emerged from barbarity. The same necessity there is for knowing the actions of the worthy part of princes, also compels us to endeavour to forget those of the ignorant and vulgar herd of kings, who seem only to slumber in a seat they were accidentally called to fill. In short, not the history of kings, but of men, should be your principal concern; and such a history is only to be acquired by consulting those originals who painted the times they lived in. Their successors, who pretended to methodize their histories, have almost universally deprived them of all their spirit, and given us rather a dry catalogue of names than an improving detail of events.² In reality, history is precious or insignificant, not from the brilliancy of the events, the singularity of the adventures, or the greatness of the personages concerned, but from the skill, penetration, and judgment of the observer. Tacitus

¹ This is Goldsmith's usual attitude with regard to "abridgers, compilers," &c. (see 'Polite Learning,' vol. iii., and elsewhere), though much of his own work of course ranks him with the tribe.—ED.

² The first edition read: "than afforded an opportunity of improving reflexion."—ED.

frequently complains of his want of materials,¹ of the littleness of his incidents, of the weakness and villainy of his actors; yet, even from such indifferent subjects, he has wrought out the most pleasing and the most instructive history that ever was written: it will therefore be entirely the work of your own judgment to convert the generality of historians to your benefit; they are, at present, but rude materials, and require a fine discernment to separate the useful from the unnecessary, and analyze their different principles.

Yet, mistake me not: I would not have history to consist of dry speculations upon facts, told with phlegm, and pursued without interest and passion; nor would I have your reason fatigued continually in critical researches: all I require is, that the historian would give as much exercise to the judgment as the imagination. It is as much his duty to act the philosopher, or politician, in his narratives, as to collect materials for narration. Without a philosophical skill in discerning, his very narrative must be frequently false, fabulous, and contradictory; without political sagacity, his characters must be ill drawn, and vice and virtue be distributed without discernment or candour.

What historian can render virtue so amiable as Xenophon? Who can interest the reader so much as Livy? Sallust is an instance of the most delicate exactness, and Tacitus of the most solid reflection: from a perfect acquaintance with these, the youthful student can acquire more knowledge of mankind, a more perfect acquaintance with antiquity, and a more just manner of thinking and expressing, than, perhaps, from any others of any age or country. Other ancient historians may be read to advance the study of ancient learning, but these should be the ground-work of all your researches. Without a previous acquaintance with these, you enter upon other writers improperly prepared; until these have placed you in a proper train of moralizing the incidents, other historians may, perhaps, injure, but will not improve you. Let me therefore, at present, my dear Charles, entreat you to bestow the proper care upon

¹ Compare a remark in the Preface to the 'History of the World,' *ante*; also compare that Preface generally.—ED.

those treasures of antiquity ; and by your letters, every post, communicate to your father, and your friend, the result of your reflections upon them. I am at a loss whether I shall find more satisfaction in hearing your remarks, or communicating my own. However, in which soever of them I shall be employed, it will make my highest amusement. Amusement is all that I can now expect in life, for ambition has long forsaken me ; and perhaps, my child, after all, what your noble ancestor has observed is most true :—*When all is done, human life is, at the greatest and the best, but like a froward child, that must be played with and humoured a little to keep it quiet till it falls asleep, and then the care is over.*¹

I am, my dear boy, your most tender friend and affectionate father.

LETTER II.

[THE STUDY OF ENGLISH HISTORY.]

DEAR CHARLES,—I entirely acquiesce in your sentiments, that universal history is a subject too extensive for human comprehension, and that he who would really reap the advantages of history must be contented to bound his views. Satisfied with being superficially acquainted with the transactions of many countries, the learner should place his principal attention only on a few.

Your remarks on the Greek and Roman republics far surpass my expectations ; you have justly characterized them as the finest instances of political society that could

¹ Goldsmith uses this quotation, wholly or in part, five times in his works, four times before the present, viz., in the ‘Enquiry into Polite Learning’ (vol. iii. p. 527) ; in the ‘Bee’ (“City Night Piece”) ; and in the ‘Citizen of the World’ (Letter CXVII.) ; and once after : viz., in the ‘Good Natured Man’ (act i. vol. ii. p. 155). The quotation is from Sir William Temple’s Works (edit. 1720, vol. i. p. 249). The reference to the “noble ancestor” here would put the authorship of these ‘Letters’ in the Temple family, *if* the “Nobleman” theory of authorship were a fact instead of being Goldsmith’s fiction.—ED.

be founded on the basis of a false religion. Where religion is imperfect, political society, and all laws enacted for its improvement, must be imperfect also. Religion is but philosophy refined; and no man could ever boast an excellence in politics, whose mind had not been previously opened and enlarged by the institutions of theology, an error in religion ever producing defects in legislation.

Forgive me, dear Charles, if I once more congratulate myself upon the pleasure I expect from your future eminence. You are now tinctured with universal history, and are thoroughly conversant with that of Greece and Rome; but there is another department of history still remaining, and that much more important than any I have yet mentioned: I mean the HISTORY OF ENGLAND. The history of this country is the proper study of an Englishman: however, it peculiarly concerns those who may, like you, one day have such an important character to support in its administration, and whose own name, perhaps, may find a place in the historic page. All who are enamoured of the liberty and the happiness which they peculiarly enjoy in this happy region, must surely be desirous of knowing the methods by which such advantages were acquired; the progressive steps from barbarity to social refinement, from society to the highest pitch of well constituted freedom. All Europe stands in astonishment at the wisdom of our constitution, and it would argue the highest degree of insensibility in a native of this country, and one, too, who from his birth enjoys peculiar privileges, to be ignorant of what others so much admire.

I shall not insist upon a principal use to which some apply the English history, I mean that of making it the topic of common conversation; yet, even from such a motive, though in itself trifling, no well-bred man can plead ignorance. Its greatest advantage, however, is, that a knowledge of the past enables the attentive mind to understand the present: our laws and customs, our liberties, and abuse of liberty, can scarcely be understood without tracing them to their source, and history is the only channel by which we can arrive at what we so eagerly pursue.

But, were I to compare the history of our own country, in point of amusement, with that of others, I know of

none, either ancient or modern, that can vie with it in this respect. In other histories, remote and extensive connections interrupt the reader's interest, and destroy the simplicity of the plan. The history of Greece may be easily divided into seven histories, and into so many it has actually been divided: the history of Rome, from the time it begins to be authentic, is little else than an account of the then known world; but, in England, separated by its situation from the continent, the reader may consider the whole narrative, with all its vicissitudes, in one point of view; it unites the philosopher's ¹ definition of beauty, by being *variously uniform*.

²The simplicity in a history of our own country is therefore excellent; but I can direct to few who have improved the materials it affords with a proper degree of assiduity or skill.² The historians who have treated of this subject have in general written for a party; many with an open avowal of their abuse.³ Some, who have had talents for this undertaking, were unable to afford themselves sufficient leisure to polish their work into the degree of requisite perfection; while others, who have laboured with sufficient assiduity, have been woefully deficient in point of sagacity, or proper skill in the choice of those facts they thought proper to relate. Whatever has been known, and not what was worth knowing, has been faithfully transcribed; so that the present accounts of the country resemble the ancient face of the soil: here an uncultivated forest, there a desolate wild; and in a very few places, a spot of earth adorned by art, and smiling with all the luxuriance of nature. To make history, like the soil, truly useful, the obstacles to improvement must be torn away, new assistances must be acquired from art; nor can the work be deemed properly finished, till the whole puts on

¹ Hutcheson.—GOLDSMITH. [Possibly Francis Hutcheson the elder, who published several editions of 'An Inquiry Concerning Beauty,' &c., in 1725 and later.—ED.]

²⁻² In the first edition we have instead:—"The materials for an history of our own country are therefore excellent, but I can direct to few who have improved them with a proper degree of assiduity or skill."—ED.

³ The first edition has:—"Many with an open avowal of virulence and abuse."—ED.

simplicity, uniformity, and elegance. As the case is at present, we must read a library to acquire a knowledge of English history, and, after all, be contented to forget more than we remember.

The history of England may be divided, properly enough, into three periods; very different, indeed, with regard to their duration, but almost of equal importance. The first is from the commencement of our knowledge of the country to its conquest by the Normans; the second, from the time of William the Conqueror to the alteration of the constitution, by the beheading of Charles I.; the last contains the remaining period of our history. It will at once appear, that such a division is extremely unequal: the first department may be said to extend to a period of more than a thousand years; the second contains not less than seven hundred, while the remaining does not take up two. Chronologists, indeed, would divide it in a very different manner; however, I am rather inclined to this division, more by the peculiar use which may be made of each period, than the mere regularity of time. To consider the first part with accuracy, belongs properly to the philosopher; the second is the business of him who would understand our constitution, and is the proper study of a legislator; and the last, of such as would be acquainted with the connections and relations in which we stand with regard to our neighbours of the continent, and our foreign and domestic trade; that is, in other words, to the merchant and politician.

There is scarce any other passion but that of curiosity excited by a knowledge of the early part of our history. We may go through the accounts of that distant era with the same impartiality with which we consider the original inhabitants of any other country, as the customs of our British ancestors have scarce any connection with our own: but then, to some minds, it must be a pleasing disquisition to observe the human animal, by degrees divesting himself of his native ferocity, and acquiring the arts of happiness and peace; to trace the steps by which he leaves his precarious meal, acquired by the chase, for a more certain but a more laborious repast, acquired first by pasturage, then by cultivation.

After the Conquest, the rude outlines of our present constitution began to be formed. Before the Norman invasion, there might be some customs resembling those at present in practice; but the only reason of their continuance was, because they had before been practised in common among the invaders. At this period, therefore, an Englishman becomes interested in the narrative; he perceives the rise and the reasons of several laws which now serve to restrain his conduct or preserve his property. The rights of our monarchs, the claims of foreign potentates, the ineffectual struggles for liberty, and the gradual encroachments of ambition, these highly interest him, as he in some measure owes to these transactions the happiness he enjoys.

But the last period is what is chiefly incumbent upon almost every man to be particularly conversant in. Every person residing here has a share in the liberties of this kingdom, as the generality of the people are ultimately invested with the legislation. It is, therefore, every man's duty to know that constitution, which, by his birth-right, he is called to govern: a freeholder, in a free kingdom, should certainly be instructed in the original of that agreement by which he holds so precious a tenure.

These motives equally influence almost every rank of people; but how much more forcibly should they operate upon you, whose honours, whose trusts and possessions, are likely to be so considerable. Others may have their liberties to support; you must sustain your liberty, your property,¹ and the dignity of your station. I shall therefore, without further preface, in some future correspondence, communicate the result of my enquiries on this subject; a subject which, I own, has employed all the leisure I had to spare from, I will not say more important, but more necessary duties. I shall endeavour, at once, to supply the facts, and the necessary consequences that may be deduced from them. I shall separate all that can contribute nothing, either to amusement or use, and leave such to dull compilers or systematic writers of history,

¹ See the "liberty and property!" ejaculation interpolated in the "Private Sentinel's" speech, 'Citizen of the World,' Letter CXIX. (vol. iii. p. 433).—ED.

whose only boast is, *to leave nothing out*. A more thorough knowledge of the subject cannot be communicated without pain, nor acquired without study; perhaps too minute a skill in this, or any one subject, might disqualify the mind for other branches of science, equally demanding our care. Of whatever use it may be, I hope you will consider it as an instance of my regard, though it should fail to add to your opinion of my sagacity.

I am, Dear Charles, &c.¹

LETTER III.

[THE BRITONS: THE DRUIDS.]

DEAR CHARLES,—There seems to be a natural tendency of every nation to run its antiquity as far back as possible, and when once they have arrived at the regions of fiction, no bounds are set to the wonders of every narration. Were we to take our character of the ancient inhabitants of this island from the legends, monuments, or traditions which have been left by those inhabitants themselves, we might be apt to imagine that arts, even in that early period, were cultivated, and sciences known, to some degree of perfection. The Druids, if we believe some fragments of their own, understood astronomy and medicine, and gave lessons in morality and metaphysics. But what credit can be given to the accounts of a barbarous people, told by themselves? The knowledge and learning, indeed, of their priests might be great, if compared with the almost brutal simplicity and ignorance of the rest of the people; but it could not deserve the name of science, if put in competition with what was known and practised by their polite contemporaries of Greece and Rome.

From the accounts of those sensible writers, and not from the fictitious absurdities of the Druids themselves, we are to estimate this ancient people. All that we find re-

¹ The concluding words in the first edition are:—"Though it should fail to improve, yet I hope it may remain a sufficient testimony how much I am, Dear Charles, &c."—ED.

lated by credible witnesses and sufficient authority, before the Romans entered this island, is, that the country was filled with incredible numbers of people, and their fields stored with great plenty of animals, savage and domestic. Their houses were meanly built and scattered, as if accidentally, over the country, without observance, distance, or order. The only motives of their choice were the peculiar fertility of some happy spot, or the convenience of wood and water. They lived upon milk, and flesh procured by the chase; for corn was scarcely known among them. What clothes they wore were skins of beasts; but a great part of their bodies was left always exposed to the injuries of weather, all that was naked being painted blue. This custom of painting was universal among them, either in order to strike terror in their enemies, or to defend the pores of the naked skin from the injuries of the weather.

Their towns, if a collection of huts could deserve that name, were mostly built upon the coasts, in places where strangers generally resorted for the sake of commerce. The commodities exported were chiefly hides and tin; and, probably, other spontaneous productions of the soil, which required no art in the preparation.

Their government, like that of the ancient Gauls, consisted of several petty principalities, which seem to be the original governments of mankind, and deduced from the natural right of paternal dominion: but whether these little principalities descended by succession, or whether the rulers were elected by the consent of the people, is not recorded. Upon great or uncommon dangers, indeed, the chief commander of all their forces was chosen by common consent in a general assembly, as Cæsar relates of Cassibelaunus, upon his invasion. The same was done upon their revolts against the Roman colonies under Caractacus and their queen Boadicea; for among them women were admitted to their principalities, and general commands, by the right of succession, merit, or nobility.

Such were the customs of the ancient Britons, and the same may serve for a description of every other barbarous nation of which we have any knowledge. Savage man is an animal in almost every country the same; and all the difference between nations results from customs introduced

by luxury, or cultivated by refinement. What the inhabitant of Britain was at that time, the inhabitant of South Africa, or Cafraria may be at this day. But there was one custom among the ancient inhabitants of this island which seems peculiar to themselves, and is not to be found in the accounts of any other ancient or modern nation. The custom I mean was a community of wives, among certain numbers, and by common consent. Every man married, indeed, but one woman, who was always after, and alone, esteemed his wife; but it was usual for five or six, ten, twelve, or more, either brothers or friends, as they could agree, to have all their wives in common. But this, though calculated for their mutual happiness, in fact proved their greatest disturbance; and, we have some instances in which this community of wives produced dissensions, jealousies, and death. Every woman's children, however, were the property of him who married her; but all claimed a share in the care and defence of the whole society, since no man knew which were his own.

To estimate the wisdom of the people we must examine the manners of their teachers. If the laity were so very barbarous, the Druids, their instructors, must have but few pretences to superior refinement; yet, I know not how, we have different and almost contradictory accounts of this extraordinary fraternity. They have been represented by some as persons of learning, derived to them by long tradition. Their skill consisted in the observation of the heavens, and upon the influence of its appearance they gave their countrymen omens of failure or success. They taught a morality which principally consisted in justice and fortitude. Their lives were simple and innocent, in woods, caverns, and hollow trees; their food, acorns or berries, and their drink water. They were respected and admired, not only for knowing more than other men, but for despising what all others valued and pursued: by their virtue and temperance they reprov'd and corrected those vices in others from which they were themselves happily free; and made use of no other arms than the reverence due to integrity to enforce obedience to their own commands. From such a conduct as this they derived so much authority, that they were not only priests, but judges also, throughout

the nation. No laws were instituted without their approbation; no person punished with bonds, or death, but by their condemnation.

But, on the other hand, we learn that all their knowledge was imposture, and their simplicity only a savage passion for solitude; their language barbarous, and their manners still more rude: these were such as called aloud for some more enlightened instructors, to conquer and to direct them. The Druids, seemingly formed for the people whom they governed, sacrificed human victims, which they burned in large wicker idols, which were made so capacious as to contain a multitude of persons, who were in this manner at once consumed with the flames. The female Druids plunged their knives in the breasts of the prisoners taken in war, and prophesied from the manner in which the blood happened to stream from the wound. Their altars consisted of four broad stones, three of which were set edgewise, and the fourth horizontally on the top, many of which are still to be seen.

In accounts so seemingly contradictory, we are entirely to give assent to neither. That they pretended to astrology is certain; this, and not their piety, probably, gave them such influence among their countrymen. To judge of what the Britons then were, as I have already hinted, we must look to what savage nations are at present; we perceive what authority a pretence to astrology, in barbarous countries, confers: the astrologer being generally considered, in almost all the eastern kingdoms, as the second, if not the first man of the state. That the Druids deceived the people with a false religion cannot be denied; but yet, I can never think that they were impostors: they first deceived themselves into a belief and veneration of what they taught, and then made use of every motive to persuade the people. The ignorant and erroneous, in the commerce of this life, are many; the villains and impostors are, comparatively speaking, but few. As for human sacrifices, few probably were destroyed upon this horrid occasion, but prisoners taken in war; and such have ever been sacrificed, by savage nations, rather from a principle of revenge than religion. It is not peculiar to the religion of the Druids alone, but was primarily the

barbarous practice of those very nations who then exclaimed against it most loudly.

In short, the religion of the Druids was no more than that of every barbarous or heathen nation with whose ceremonies we have any acquaintance. This was the religion which was not only practised in Britain, but which prevailed originally over the greatest part of the world. The original inhabitants of Europe, as a learned antiquary¹ has finely proved, were the same, all speaking one language, worshipping the same deities, and governed by similar laws. Successive invasions from different parts of Asia brought new changes; and, as the colonies went westward, the Greek, the Roman, and Teutonic languages and customs were superinduced over the ancient Celtic. All the countries most accessible to strangers, or most subject to invasion, were first changed: those which lay surrounded by mountains, or were in some measure retired by their situation, such as Wales, Cornwall, the highlands of Scotland, Ireland, Biscay, and Crim Tartary, all preserved their primitive manners. It is even found, that these countries still adhere to many of the ancient Druidical customs, as far as the alterations of religion will admit. We have, as yet, an opportunity of viewing many of their ancient, and in some measure, venerable superstitions, still in Ireland; these are, however, wearing out by degrees, and another century will efface every vestige of barbarous antiquity. I am,

Dear Charles, &c.

LETTER VII.

[SAXONS AND DANES: KING ALFRED.]

It might reasonably have been expected, that a fortunate prince, as Egbert had always been, at the head of so large

¹ Perron.—GOLDSMITH. [The note in the first edition, however, gives the name "Mountfaucon." Bernard de Montfaucon was an antiquary; but Cardinal Perron, if he is the Perron meant, was rather a controversialist than an antiquary.—ED.]

a united kingdom, after the expulsion of the Picts, Scots, and Britons, should not only have enjoyed the fruits of peace, but even have left tranquillity and happiness to his most distant posterity : yet such is the instability of human affairs, and the weakness of man's best conjectures, that Egbert was scarcely settled in his throne, when the whole kingdom was alarmed by the approach of an unexpected enemy, fierce, barbarous, and brave. About this time a mighty swarm of those nations which had possessed the countries bordering on the Baltic began, under the names of Danes and Normans, to infest the western coast of Europe, filling the places wherever they came with slaughter and devastation. It is remarkable enough, that the people whom they spoiled were no other than colonies of their own countrymen, who had migrated some centuries before, and plundered those very countries where they were now themselves plundered in turn. The Normans fell upon the northern coasts of France : the Danes chiefly levelled their fury at England, and entering the Thames with an incredible number of ships, carried away all that could neither be defended nor withdrawn from the suddenness of the invasion.

The weak opposition the Danes met with from the English, only served to invite them to renew their depredations, and make fresh attempts the succeeding season. The bravest blood of the English had been already exhausted in civil war, under the dissensions of the Saxon heptarchy ; and when those wars were terminated, pilgrimages, penances, cloisters, and superstitions, served to enfeeble the remainder. Thus the Saxons were become as unable to make opposition against the Danes, as the Britons were to oppose the Saxons heretofore : they therefore bought off their invaders with money ; a remarkable instance how much they had degenerated from their warlike ancestors. The money which was thus extorted, only increased the avarice and strength of the enemy. It was also raised by the kings from exactions on the people : this caused new discontent, and served to hasten the fall of their thrones, which already began to totter.

This century, however, did not pass without various success, and doubtful fortune, between the two contending

nations. No less than twelve battles are said to have been fought in one year. The Danes divided their forces into several camps, removed them from one part of the country to another, as they were forced by necessity, invited by hopes of spoil, or induced by the weakness and divisions of the enemy. They fortified posts and passages, built castles for the defence of their borders, and the whole country was, in some measure, covered with their redoubts, the vestiges of which remain to this day. This manner of fortifying the country, and the difference of religion, seem to be the only customs in which the Danes differed from the Saxons they had invaded. They were both originally from the same country, and their manners consequently the same.

The similitude of language, laws, and manners, soon produced an intercourse between both nations ; and though they still were enemies, the Danes gradually began to mingle among the people of England, and submit to the laws and kings of the country they had partly subdued. But what concord could be expected between Christians, as the English then were, and pagans, for such the Danes still continued ? Wherefore, though the English in some measure admitted the Danes, yet, still, they hated them ; this produced frequent contests, which most frequently laid the country in blood.

In this period of cruelty, jealousy, and desolation, a man seemed raised up to his bleeding country, to defend its rights, improve the age in which he lived, and even to adorn humanity. Alfred the Great was the fourth son of Ethelwolfe, king of England, and had received the earlier part of his education under the inspection of Pope Leo, in Rome, which was at that time the chief seat of arts and learning in Europe. Upon the death of his elder brother Ethelred, he was called to the English throne, of which he was only nominally put in possession, the country being overrun by the Danes, who governed with cruelty and pride.

His reign began with wars, and he was forced into the field immediately upon his coronation. His first battles were fought with success : but at length, being overpowered by a Danish combination, the unfortunate Alfred was obliged to seek safety by flight. In this manner, being

abandoned by the world, without succour, and fearing an enemy in every face, the royal fugitive was resolved not to forsake his country, as was usual with his predecessors. He retired to the cottage of a cowherd, in a solitary part of the county of Somerset, at the confluence of the rivers Parret and Thone : here he lived six months as a servant, and, as we are told, was sometimes reproved for his indolence by his mistress, the cowherd's wife. The Earl of Devonshire was alone privy to the place of his retreat ; and, happening to overthrow a body of the Danes, acquainted Alfred with the news of his success.

Alfred now, therefore, began to consider how to turn the present consternation of the enemy to his own advantage. He apprised his friends of the place of his retreat, and instructed them to be ready, with what troops they could raise, upon a minute's warning : but still none was found who would undertake to give intelligence of the forces or posture of the enemy. Not knowing, therefore, whom to confide in, he undertook this dangerous task himself : in the simple dress of a shepherd, with a harp in his hand, he entered the Danish camp, had admission to the principal generals, and was allowed to excel upon that instrument. He soon perceived that the enemy was divided among themselves : he seizes the favourable moment, flies to the Earl of Devonshire, heads his troops, forces their camp, and gains a complete victory.

Alfred knew the arts of negotiation as well as those of war : he had sufficient address to cause himself to be acknowledged king by the Danes, as well as his own natural subjects. London still remained to be subdued : he besieged it, took and fortified it in a manner which was then thought impregnable. He fitted out a fleet, kept the Danes in his dominions under proper subjection, and repressed the invasions of others from abroad. His next care was to polish that country by the arts of peace, which he had subdued by the art of war. He is said to have drawn up a body of laws : but those which remain to this day, under his name, seem to be no more than laws already practised in the country by his Saxon ancestors, and to which, probably, he gave his sanction. The trials by juries, mulcts and fines for offences, by some ascribed to him, are of a

much more ancient date than his reign. It is sufficient to observe, that the penal laws of our ancestors were mild and humane. As a nation becomes more polite, the penal laws become more numerous and severe, till, at length, growing intolerable to the poor, against whom they are principally levelled, they throw off the yoke of legal bondage, either by admitting a despotic prince, or by taking the government into their own hands by military invasion. I remember few great characters in history, that had not a regard for the sciences. Alfred is said to have founded the university of Oxford, and supplied it with books from Rome. The spirit of superstition had quite suppressed all the efforts of philosophy at this period. He is said to have lamented, that no priest in all his dominions understood Latin. As for him, he knew it, and was also well versed in the geometry of those barbarous ages. He was an excellent historian, made some translations from the Latin, which still subsist, and it is even said that he composed some excellent poems in the Saxon language. Those hours which he could take from business, he gave to study. He was a complete economist, and this gave him an opportunity of being liberal. His care even extended to the manner in which the people built their houses. Before his time, the generality of the nation made use, mostly, of timber, in building: Alfred having raised his palaces with brick, the nobility, by degrees, began to imitate his example.

From this time, though the reigns immediately succeeding are marked with ignorance, superstition, and cruelty, yet, in general, history puts on a form less severe: the whole nation seems to emerge into a greater degree of politeness than it had before enjoyed. The coins of this period are better struck than those of preceding princes. The marine in his time, seems first to have given rise to our claim to the ocean. In short, from this period English history may properly be said to commence, and our constitution to take its rise. We are connected with the events previous to Alfred's reign only by motives of curiosity, but with those that follow him by the more prevailing inducements of interest.

This great man died in the year 900, in the 52d year of

his age, after a reign of more than twenty-eight years; the first part spent in war and distress; the latter, in peace and prosperity. I am, &c.

LETTER XIV.

[KING JOHN: MAGNA CHARTA.]

THE wars that were now kindled between England and France, continued to depopulate both countries, without making in the end any material alteration. John, the brother and successor of Richard, pursued them with unabating vigour. We may regard these, and such like commotions among Christian princes, as pestilences, which lay whole provinces waste, without making any change in their limits, their manners, or government.

John, who was surnamed Lackland, was, in fact, possessed of the most extensive dominion of any prince in Europe. Besides the lands left him by succession, he had wrested Bretagne from Arthur, his nephew, whose right it was. However, John, by thus pretending to what was not justly his, in the end lost even what he had.

Having made himself master of Bretagne, the unfortunate Arthur also fell into his power. He caused him to be confined in a tower, and what became of him was never after explained to the public satisfaction. John was suspected, and not without reason, of the death of his nephew. He made some efforts to wipe off the odious stain, yet without effect. Happily for the instruction of future princes, this crime only opened a way to his future ruin; and having begun his reign by being the enemy of mankind in prosperity, the whole world, in the end, seemed to turn their back upon him in his distress. The power of the nobility of France was now exerted with justice against him: those assemblies of noblemen, each of which was, at that time, the petty lawless tyrant of his dependents, in this instance, at least, undertook to punish the guilty. Constance, the unfortunate mother of the murdered prince, flew for protection to the peers, and implored redress. The

king of England was summoned to appear: he refused, and the peers of France confiscated all the lands and possessions which were held under that crown. This confiscation was soon attended with vigorous efforts to put it into execution. John, at once both weak and cowardly, a tyrant when unopposed, but timorous in danger, suffered himself to be stripped of them all. He successively lost Normandy, Touraine, and Poictou; and then fled back to England, to make himself hated and despised.

Hitherto, however, he was only contemptible to his neighbour princes: he had still some expectations from the esteem and affection of his natural subjects; but he soon showed, that all his skill was only to make himself enemies, that he wanted abilities to reconcile. The clergy had for some time, acted as a separate body, and had their elections of each other generally confirmed by the pope. The election of archbishops had, for some time, been a continual subject of dispute between the suffragan bishops and the Augustine monks, and both had precedents to confirm their pretensions. Things being in this situation, the Archbishop of Canterbury happened to die, and the Augustine monks, in a private manner, made choice of Reginald, their sub-prior. The bishops exclaimed at this as invading their privileges, and here was likely to begin a theological contest. A politic prince would have managed the quarrel in such a manner, as to let the body of the clergy thus grow weaker by division; but John was not a politic prince; he immediately sided with the suffragan bishops, and the Bishop of Norwich was unanimously chosen. To decide the differences, an appeal was made to the pope. Innocent III. who then filled the chair, possessed an unbounded share of power, and his talents were equal to the veneration he was held in: he vacated both claims, and enjoined the monks to choose Stephen Langton, an Englishman, then at the court of Rome. John knew how to oppose, though not to negotiate: he received the pope's decree with a degree of ungoverned fury, and returned the pope a letter filled with abuse. Innocent, in return, put the whole kingdom of England under an interdict, and forbade the king's subjects longer to obey him. These ecclesiastical thunders were at that time truly formidable: and the more so, as

the execution of them was committed to Philip Augustus, king of France, an ambitious and a politic prince. To him the pope gave the kingdom of England as a perpetual inheritance, assuring him of a remission of all his sins, if he happened to succeed in conquering it. He granted all who embarked in this cause also the same indulgences as were usually given to such as went upon a crusade. Philip immediately embraced the offer: not content with depriving John of his continental dominions, he devoured in imagination the kingdom of England also. By his preparations, it was evident how desirous he was to succeed in this undertaking: the ships, of which his fleet was to consist, came together to the mouth of the Seine, while the princes, his vassals, collected their forces to the shore from all parts of the country. His army was numerous, and the discontents of the English were equivalent to thousands more. Philip was ready, therefore, to set sail; and John, on his part, made an expiring effort to receive him. All-hated as he was, the natural enmity between the French and English, the name of a king, and some remaining share of power, put him at the head of an army of fifty thousand men, with which he advanced to Dover.

Europe regarded such important preparations with impatience, and the decisive blow was soon expected. The pope was too refined a politician for both, and took upon himself what he pretended to have designed for Philip. This singular negotiation was executed by Pandulph, as the pope's legate to France and England. He passed through France, where he beheld Philip's great armament, and highly commended his zeal and diligence; he then went over to Dover, under a pretence of negotiating with the barons in favour of the French king, and had a conference with John upon his arrival. He there represented the number of the enemy, the hatred of many of his own subjects; he intimated, that there was but one way to secure himself from impending danger, which was, to put himself under the pope's protection, who, as a kind and merciful father, was still willing to receive him to his bosom.

John was too much intimidated by the apparent danger not to embrace every means of offered safety. He con-

sented to the legate's remonstrances, and took an oath to perform what the pope should impose. Having thus sworn to perform he knew not what, the artful Italian so well managed the barons, and intimidated the king, that he took the following extraordinary oath, before all the people, kneeling upon his knees, and putting his hands between those of the legate :

“I, John, by the grace of God, King of England and lord of Ireland, in order to expiate my sins, from my own free-will, and the advice of my barons, give to the church of Rome, to Pope Innocent and his successors, the kingdom of England, and all other prerogatives of my crown: I will hereafter hold them as the pope's vassal. I will be faithful to God, to the church of Rome, and to the pope my master, and his successors legitimately elected. I promise to pay him a tribute of a thousand marks yearly, to wit, seven hundred for the kingdom of England, and three hundred for Ireland.”

By this mean concession, John secured his crown from a foreign invasion, but became effectually contemptible in the eyes of his people; still, however, he was not hated by his subjects; their hatred only was wanting to sink him into complete wretchedness. After being exposed to so many disgraceful humiliations, he now thought, at the expense of his honour, to spend the remaining years of his life in tranquillity; but, in proportion as he lost the esteem of the English, he lost their affections also. The former monarchs supported their power by a nice opposition of the clergy and the barons: when they intended to humble the nobility, they granted new privileges to the church, when they desired to lessen the power of the clergy, they gave greater force to the temporal interests. John was ignorant of the manner of conducting this opposition: he had offended the clergy, and increased their power without making them his friends: he had it only left now to offend his barons, to render himself obnoxious to every order of people. His former pusillanimity soon gave this powerful body hopes of expecting a renewal of those powers of which they had been deprived in the preceding reign: they demanded, therefore, the re-establishment of their ancient privileges, and John believed himself authorized to refuse

them. This created new dissensions: the king, with a strange perverseness, in turn demanded their assistance for the recovery of his lost dominions on the continent, and they refused to follow him. Their refusal was soon followed by more open acts of hostility: they formed a confederacy, and at an appointed meeting forced the king to grant all their demands, and sign that charter by which the English are said to hold their liberties at this day.

The barons and the clergy by this seemed the only governors of the kingdom: the commonalty had no share in the legislature; they were passed away with the lands on which they were born, by their haughty possessors; they were reckoned only as the sheep, oxen, and other moveable possessions, which were upon the estate: the guardian of an heir was to preserve the lands entire, and, to use the words of the Magna Charta, *sine destructione et vasto hominum vel rerum*, without destruction or waste of the men or the things upon it. The king, the barons, and the clergy, were all, in reality, enemies to public liberty: their parties were so many factions in the nation, subversive of the rights of mankind. How they, in turn, helped to establish liberty, you shall see in my future correspondence.

This charter was, in fact, giving the barons a definite judgment upon whatsoever they thought proper to represent as a grievance; they were to prefer their complaints to the king, and he was, in forty days, to give them satisfaction, or they were legally empowered to command it. This was an infringement of the prerogative, which he complied with through fear, and, as soon as he was at liberty, he retracted all he had agreed to: he loudly complained of the force with which it had been exacted, and he demanded justice from the pope, his new master.

The pope, who had lately excommunicated the king, now excommunicated the barons. The barons, exasperated, did exactly what the pope had formerly done upon a like occasion: they offered the crown of England to France. Philip, ever ready to profit by these commotions, accepted their offer with joy; but, fearing the pope's displeasure, if he assumed a title to what was now considered as a patrimony

of the holy see, he prevailed upon the barons to elect his son Lewis. To this league of the barons with France, the city of London lent its assistance. We should be careful to observe every beginning of power among the commons of England, and this seems to be one of the most obvious instances. This noble city was the first that freed itself from feudal government, and ventured to follow the leaders of its own appointment; in short, it may, at this period, be looked upon as a little republic, fighting between the powers of aristocracy, represented in the barons, and of despotism assumed by the king.

In the mean time the army of Lewis, which was called over to the assistance of the barons, committed strange disorders: while, on the other hand, the army of John, which, like the former, was mostly composed of foreigners, was still more insolent and audacious. Never was England in a more deplorable condition: she had two armies of hungry foreigners in her bowels, ravaging the country in a merciless manner, and threatening ruin, whichever proved victorious. John was, at length, deposed by his barons, and Lewis solemnly crowned at London. The new monarch then first thought of having the pope's sanction to his claim. The pope debated in council the justice of a cause which scarcely deserved a moment's hesitation; while John led his harassed army from city to city, distrusting even his most faithful adherents. Pity then procured friends which prosperity could not procure; and now the barons were struck with some remorse to see their native country, by their procurement, thus laid desolate, and their king a wanderer: but what added to their afflictions was, that their services were hitherto slightly repaid by the new-crowned monarch, and, from a knowledge of his disposition, they could hope for no increase of future favours. It was even reported among them, that his intentions were to banish them for their disloyalty to their former sovereign, though exerted in his own favour. Whatever their motives might be, forty barons addressed letters of submissive suit to King John; the pope also held the justice of his claim in suspense: a gleam of distant prosperity seemed to brighten his affairs; but, while the conjuncture seemed big with new events, the death of both the pope and of John de-

cided the contest. This monarch died in the fifty-first year of his age, after a reign of more than seventeen years, spent in wars without success, and exertions of power without increase of authority.

I am,

Dear Charles, &c.

LETTER XV.

[HENRY III.: ORIGIN OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.]

DEAR CHARLES,—Had Lewis, who was crowned king, dissembled till possessed of uncontrolled power, he might have retained the crown: but the barons wanted a monarch subservient to their power, and Lewis refused a kingdom upon such conditions. They now, therefore, turned from the French intruder to the young monarch, from whom they expected greater condescension.

Henry III., appointed successor to the crown by John his father, was but ten years of age when made king, and the Earl of Pembroke was, by mutual consent, constituted his guardian. The inconstancy of the English was now more than ever apparent: Lewis was, in some measure, forsaken by his new subjects, and, after a defeat, obliged to relinquish all pretensions to the kingdom. What the barons, however, had hoped from the king's tender age, did not answer their expectations. The Earl of Pembroke, who governed his nonage, made a powerful interest with the clergy, and, by their means, served to balance the state.

While Henry acted under the direction of others, the power of the barons seemed to have been kept under: he had the clergy for him, and consequently the people, and these two were equivalent to all the nobility. But, as soon as Henry came to take the reins into his own hands, numberless insurrections and calamities were the result of his obstinacy, folly, and vice. Infinite were the struggles for power between the barons and the king. Henry's luxury and profuseness continually rendered him a petitioner to the assemblies of barons for money (for now the kings began to ask money instead of men), and they as

constantly demanded a confirmation of those privileges which had been granted them under the reign of his predecessor.

In order to render himself independent of them, he found a thousand ridiculous pretences for raising money without their assistance. He would invite himself to the houses of his subjects, and always expected a present at the door; he extorted from the Jews, wherever he found them, without any remorse; he even scrupled not to defraud minors of their lawful inheritances to which he had been left protector: while the people had the mortification to see those sums lavished upon undeserving favourites, foreigners without merit, strumpets, flatterers, and all the vermin of a vicious court.

But all his exactions were not sufficient to supply his prodigality; he still wanted money, he still was obliged to have recourse to his barons, and yet he still desired to be absolute. The barons, on the contrary, who had long aimed at independence, and who detested his cowardice and luxury, refused his request. Though no monarch was more timid in danger, none was more presumptuous in prosperity; he threatened them, for refusing, with his severe displeasure, and strengthened himself by the assistance of the pope, in order to plunder the kingdom.

While the English were complaining of the avarice of their king, and his profusion to foreign favourites, the pope's legate made his triumphal entry to rob them of what the king had not laid hands on. The interests of the clergy and of the pope were formerly one, but now they began to flow in divided channels. The riches, which some years before settled in their monasteries at home, were drained off to enrich a distant kingdom, already too luxurious. The clergy, therefore, justly dreaded the arrival of an extraordinary legate, whose only aims were directed by avarice and extortion. They expostulated, but in vain, to the king, against this unnecessary ambassador from the head of the church: the king hoped to reap some private advantage from his arrival, and he was but little concerned for public grievances. In every demand the king made for himself, the legate would take care to make one for the pope also: he even proposed that the monks should sign

their names to notes, where a blank was left for the sum specified. The exactions, thus daily committed upon the churches, compelled the bishops to carry their complaints to the pope himself; but the king still vindicated the legate's conduct. At length, the prelates, quite tired with the repeated demands of the legate, who daily had some new pretext for getting money, resolved to meet and consider of some remedy to prevent his rapacity. They accordingly assembled, but had scarcely began to complain to each other of the miseries they suffered, when the legate entered the assembly with a demand for more money: this they considered as an accumulation of impudence and extortion, and they gave him a blunt denial. The legate, being disappointed, for this time left the assembly, and went to pillage the Scotch clergy with better prospects of success.

An accident happened about this time, which serves as a strong instance of the submission the people yielded to the power of Rome. Some business induced the legate to take Oxford in his way: he was received with all the grandeur and magnificence, which, from his character, he had a right to expect. As the luxury in which these Italian dignitaries lived was great, several scholars of the university, while the legate's dinner was preparing, entered his kitchen, incited by motives of curiosity or hunger. While they here and there admired the opulence and luxury of all they saw, a poor Irish scholar ventured to beg relief from the cook: the cook, instead of giving an alms, threw a ladle full of boiling water in his face; an action which so provoked a Welsh student who was present, that, having a bow in his hand, he shot the cook dead with an arrow. The legate, hearing the tumult, retired in a fright to the tower of the church, where he remained till evening. As soon as he thought he might retire with safety, he hastened to the king, and complained of this outrage: the king, with his usual meanness, flew into a violent passion, and offered to give immediate satisfaction, by putting the offenders to death. The legate at first seemed to insist on vengeance, but, at length, was appeased by a proper submission from the university: all the scholars of that school, which had offended him, were ordered to be stripped of their gowns,

and to walk barefoot, with halters about their necks, to the legate's house, and humbly crave pardon and absolution. It would be no easy matter to bring the students of Oxford to such an humiliation at present.

In this manner the brutal and capricious tyrant went on, leagued with the pope against his own dominions. He had now neither barons nor clergy in his interest, and owed all his support to the authority of the papal and royal names. The pope continued to make reiterated demands upon the clergy, and the king would beg from his subjects at their own houses, as if he had been asking charity. At one time he would get money, by pretending to take the crusade; at another he would prevail, by going to reconquer his dominions in France: again, he would extort aid, under pretext of portioning a relation; and he would frequently assure his parliament of barons, that, though he had hitherto behaved unworthily, yet upon being supplied once more with proper assistance, he would reform, and give universal satisfaction. Thus he drew forth various sums, which, without shame, he bestowed upon flatterers, panders to his pleasures, or an army of foreigners, which he kept to intimidate his native dominions.

At length, however, the parliament, fatigued with his unperforming promises, resolved to refuse his demands for the future: they therefore entered into an association, and the city of London was invited to accede. At the head of this powerful combination was the Earl of Leicester, the king's brother-in-law, who had risen into power merely by his master's profuseness. The king, by a strange absurdity of thinking, as he became more feeble and unpopular, increased his demands for fresh supplies. He was worsted in France, and obliged to purchase a shameful truce: he was conquered by the Welsh, and became contemptible to Scotland; yet still he continued to harass his own subjects with his usual extortion, as if he designed to create in them that awe with which he failed to impress his enemies. The barons, finding him incorrigible, after an experience of near forty years, at length shook off their allegiance, and sent the king notice that they renounced the fealty they owed him, and now considered him only as the common enemy of mankind.

Both sides were now up in arms, and the country again became the theatre of civil slaughter. The first advantages in this contest were in favour of the king. He was a coward in danger, and showed himself a tyrant in victory. Flushed with the success with which his arms had just been crowned, he resolved to march directly to London. He made no doubt but the city, intimidated by his late advantages, would declare in his favour; and, had he formerly behaved with paternal indulgence, perhaps his present hopes would not have been groundless: but a remembrance of his former ill usage repressed their loyalty. Instead of opening their gates to receive a conqueror, they sent forth an army to oppose his entry. Henry stopped his forces in a panic, and returned to meet the Earl of Leicester, who advanced with his army near Lewes, in the county of Sussex.

All hopes of reconciliation being now laid aside, nothing was thought of but the decision of the sword. The earl, advancing with his army, drew up in order of battle, near the king, who prepared, though with reluctance, to receive him. The battle was begun by prince Edward, the king's son, who attacked the Londoners with great fury, and drove them off the field of battle: on the other hand, the king's body of forces were defeated, after a short resistance, by the Earl of Leicester. His majesty, who commanded them in person, gave no instances of valour, but tamely suffered himself to be taken prisoner; which soon paved the way for the defeat of the whole army, and prince Edward's surrendering at discretion.

The king and the prince being thus prisoners, the barons took all advantages that the most refined policy could suggest. They knew how to operate upon the king's pusillanimity, and obliged him to send letters to all the governors of the kingdom, to renounce their obedience, and surrender his castles to the conquerors. They who draw their sword against the king, says the proverb, should fling the scabbard away. The barons, with this view, were resolved entirely to new-model the constitution, for they now knew that a composition with the royal captive was impossible: and at this period we must fix the date of English liberty. The privileges of the king, the barons, and the

clergy, were but different modes of various usurpations: the commonalty had little or no share in the legislature, and only looked tamely on, or were led to slaughter, without hopes of sharing the rewards of victory.

The barons and clergy, however, now saw that the government could not readily be transferred, without some greater power than they were at present possessed of. The dethroning a king, the resisting a pope, were actions that they could not defend upon the principles of the times: they called in, therefore, an aid till now entirely unknown in the world; they called in the sanction of the people. The authority of the barons, clergy, and the people of England, were set to oppose the royal and papal authority. And here, my dear Charles, I cannot but admire the strange concurrence of circumstances which brought this first dawn of liberty into being. To effect this, it was first necessary that England should be possessed of a contested foreign dominion; that the king should have frequent necessities for money to preserve it; that this necessarily should produce a dependence upon the barons and clergy; and that this dependence should give them in return, a share of power: it was necessary, that the interests of the clergy should be separated from those of the crown, and should concur in the opposition: in short, it was necessary that the powers on both sides should be so exactly balanced, that so small a weight as that of the people, as it was then considered, should be thrown in to turn the scale.

A parliament was called, in which the king was obliged to give orders that four knights from each county should sit, in order to represent their respective shires, and deliberate for the general benefit of the people. This is the first rude outline of an English House of Commons. The people had been gaining some consideration since the diminution of the feudal laws, and the establishment of corporation charters, by which men were, in some measure, rescued from the power of their masters, and permitted to improve a spirit of freedom in towns. As arts increased, the number of these little republics (if I may so call them) increased; and we find them, at the present period, of consequence enough to be adopted into a partnership of

the legislation. But these privileges were granted by the barons merely to confirm their own; and, could they have now agreed among themselves, they might have continued in possession of all the authority of the kingdom, and the constitution might thus settle into a confirmed aristocracy: but they grew jealous of each other's power; they began to fear the Earl of Leicester, who had abrogated kingly authority, and was intent only upon establishing despotism. This produced new struggles, and these ended once more in the restoration of the king and his family: the Earl of Leicester was defeated, and slain upon the field of battle. Henry, who had been led about as a captive, and always exposed in the front of that army which had dethroned him, was once more set at liberty by his victorious son Edward; and though, to the end of life, he persevered in his former follies, yet the people retained that share of liberty which they had acquired in the turbulent parts of his reign. A spirit of liberty had now diffused itself from the incorporated towns through the whole mass of people, and ever after blazed forth at convenient seasons: afterward, whoever lost, they were sure to be gainers; and if in the contest they laid down their lives, and suffered all the hardships of war, yet they considered those calamities as trivial, if liberty were left improved and better secured to their posterity.

I am,

Dear Charles, &c.

LETTER XXII.

[HENRY V.: PERSECUTION OF WICKLIFFITES: BATTLE OF AGINCOURT.]

THE death of Henry IV. gave his people but little affliction, among whom he never acquired any popularity; but the rejoicings made for the succession of his son, Henry V., were manifest and sincere. This prince was their favourite, notwithstanding the profligacy of his youth: in the very height of riot and extravagance, he would some-

times give instances of the sublimest virtues. But his courage seemed to be what peculiarly won their affection and esteem: at this barbarous period, courage seemed to be regarded as the only virtue: courage and superstition then made up the whole system of human duty, and stamped the character of heroism.

The people of Europe were, by this time, degenerated from what they were even two hundred years before: a continuance of war had blotted out the very traces of morality. The vices of the clergy had drawn upon them contempt and opposition, which they returned, not by reforming themselves, but by persecuting those who opposed them. This reign was begun in attempting to extirpate the heresy of Wickliffe.¹ John Oldcastle, baron of Cobham, was the most considerable protector of this sect: he was the king's domestic, and stood highly in his favour. The archbishop of Canterbury, therefore, undertook to prejudice him in the royal opinion, and endeavoured to persuade the young monarch that fire and faggot were the only instruments capable of saving a heretic from future damnation; and that Oldcastle's opinions deserved the severest punishments of the law. The king was, at length, persuaded to talk with Oldcastle in private, and, finding him immovable, gave him up to the fury of his enemies. Persecution ever produces those crimes which it endeavours to abolish. Oldcastle was condemned, but, escaping, was obliged to become, in fact, that guilty person which they had at first falsely represented him: he headed a body of malecontents, and refused to be amenable to the royal power. This unhappy man, after a variety of distresses, at length fell into the power of his enemies; and never did the cruelty of man invent, or the crimes of the delinquent draw down, more torments than he was made to endure: he was hung up with a chain by the middle, and by a slow fire burned, or rather roasted alive.

Such spectacles as these must naturally produce a disgust in the people both to the government and to the clergy: but to turn their minds from these hideous spec-

¹ Compare the account of the persecution of the Wickliffites, etc., in this Letter with our *restored* passages of the essay, 'A Reverie at the Boar's Head Tavern' (vol. i. pp. 282-3).—ED.

tacles, Henry was resolved to take advantage of the troubles in which France was at that time involved. Charles, who was then king of France, was subject to frequent fits of lunacy, which totally disqualified him from reigning: in these intervals the ambition of his vassals and courtiers had room for exertion, and they grew powerful from the weakness of their king. Isabella, of Bavaria, his queen, was at the head of one faction; the Duke of Burgundy of another: the faction of the children of the Duke of Orleans was considerable; that only which held to the king was feeble. Each of these, as they happened to prevail, branded their captives with the names of traitors, and the gibbets were at once hung with the bodies of the accused and the accusers.

This was thought a most favourable opportunity to rescue from France those grants that had formerly been given up by treaty: Henry, therefore, invaded that kingdom with an army of fifty thousand men. He took Harfleur, and advanced into a country already rendered desolate by factions, and which he now totally laid waste by a foreign invasion; but though the enemy made but a feeble resistance, yet the climate seemed to fight for them; a contagious dysentery carried off three parts of Henry's soldiers. In such a situation he had recourse to an expedient common enough in the barbarous times I am describing; he challenged the Dauphin to single combat, offering to stake his pretensions on the event. This challenge, as might be naturally expected, was rejected; and the French, though disagreeing internally, now seemed united at the appearance of foreign danger.

Henry soon began to repent of his rash inroad into a country, where disease and a powerful army every moment threatened destruction: and therefore thought of returning to Calais. In this retreat, which was at once both painful and dangerous, Henry took every method to inspire his troops with courage and perseverance, and showed them, in himself, an example of patience and resignation. In the mean time the French army was drawn up to obstruct his passage, nor was there any possibility of his passing them without a battle; yet even that could promise but small hopes of victory: his army was wasted with disease, their

spirits worn down with fatigue, destitute of provisions, and but nine thousand in number, to sustain the shock of an enemy amounting to a hundred and fifty thousand. This disparity, as it raised the courage of the French, so it impressed the English with terror. So confident were the French leaders of success, that they began to treat for the ransom of their prisoners. On the 25th of October, 1415, the two armies drew up in battle array, early in the morning, near the castle of Agincourt. A narrow ground, flanked on one side by a wood, on the other by a rivulet, was to be the scene of action. The constable of France commanded the French, and Henry, with Edward Duke of York, the English. Both armies for some time kept silently gazing at each other, as if afraid to begin; which Henry perceiving, with a cheerful countenance, cried out, My friends, since they will not begin, let us set them the example: come on, and the blessed Trinity be our protection! And now the whole army set forward with a shout. The French still continued to wait their approach with intrepidity, when the English archers let fly a shower of arrows three feet long, which did great execution. The French cavalry advancing to repel these, two hundred bowmen, who lay till then concealed, rising on a sudden, let fly among them. The English, seeing their confusion, now threw by their arrows, and fell upon them sword in hand: though enfeebled by disease, yet they recompensed the defect by valour. The French at first repulsed the assailants; but they, resolved to conquer or die, again burst in upon the enemy with such impetuosity, that they gave way: in the mean time, a body of English horse, which had been concealed in a neighbouring wood, rushing out, flanked the French infantry: and now a total disorder began to ensue.

The first line of the enemy being thus routed, the second line began to march up to interrupt the progress of the victory. Henry, therefore, alighting from his horse, presented himself to the enemy, with an undaunted countenance; and, at the head of his men, fought on foot, encouraging some and assisting others. Eighteen French cavaliers, who were resolved to kill him or die in the attempt, rushing forth together, advanced, and one of them

stunned him with a blow of his battle-axe: they then fell upon him in a body, and he was just going to sink under their blows, when David Gam, a valiant Welshman, and two more of the same country, came to his aid: they soon turned the attention of the French from the king: but, being overpowered themselves, they fell dead at his feet. The king had now recovered his senses, and more help coming in, the eighteen Frenchmen were all slain; upon which he knighted the brave Welshmen who had bravely fallen in his defence.¹ The heat of the battle still increasing, his courage seemed to increase: and now the thickest of the battle was gathered round his person: his brother being fallen down by his side, stunned with the blow of a club, he covered him for awhile: but receiving another blow himself, it threw him on his knees: he soon, however, recovered, and his valour seemed to inspire his troops with fury; they ran headlong upon the enemy, and, by an unexpected attack, put them into such disorder that their leaders could never after bring them to the charge. The Duke of Alençon, who commanded the second line, seeing it fly, resolved by one desperate stroke to retrieve the day, or fall in the attempt: wherefore, running up to King Henry, and crying aloud, that he was the Duke of Alençon, he discharged such a blow on his head, that it carried off a part of the king's helmet: Henry, not having been able to ward off the blow, soon returned it by striking the duke to the ground; and he was soon killed by the surrounding crowd, all the king's efforts to save him from their fury being ineffectual.

The two first lines being thus dispersed, the third refused to assist them, and marched off without fighting. The king, therefore, thinking himself thus sure of victory, was surprised with an account that his baggage was plundering by the enemy: just struck with an apprehension that the French had rallied, and being sensible that the number of his prisoners was greater than that of his

¹ This story of David Gam is not very common in Histories of England; yet, in addition to its occurrence here, we have it in one of Goldsmith's later histories, the 'History of England,' 4 vols. 1771; and, in the essay on the 'Character of English Officers,' vol. iii. p. 452, another story of David Gam and Henry V. is told.—ED.

army, he rashly ordered all the prisoners to be put to death : which order was accordingly executed. This severity tarnished the glory which his victory would have otherwise acquired ; but all the heroism, and all the virtues of that age are tinctured with barbarity.

This victory, however great it may appear, was rather ostentatious than useful : it acquired the English glory, but not dominion ; and while it settled Henry's interests more firmly in the hearts of his subjects, it only served to inspire him with a love of new conquests. With this view, therefore, he returned to England, in order to procure new stores of men and money.

The war between the two kingdoms from this period seemed to be carried on rather by negotiations, treasons, plots, and fomented jealousies, than by the force of arms. France was but as one vast theatre of crimes, murders, punishments, and devastations : the Duke of Orleans was assassinated by the Duke of Burgundy, and he, in his turn, fell by the treachery of the Dauphin ; while the son, desiring to revenge his father's death, acknowledged Henry as lawful heir to the crown, and a treaty was concluded between Henry and the young Duke of Burgundy at Troyes, by which he was acknowledged heir to the crown of France, after the death of Charles, who still reigned, though, by his diseases, rendered totally incapable of business. Catharine, the French king's daughter, was given to Henry in marriage ; and it was resolved, that the Dauphin should be brought to an account for the murder of the late Duke of Burgundy. Things being adjusted in this manner, Henry entered the city of Paris without opposition, and there conducted the government at his pleasure : while the feeble Charles was attended as a king indeed, but with scarce even the liberty of a subject.

The Dauphin, in the meantime, wandered about, a stranger in his own dominions, while Henry returned to London to raise new subsidies and new troops, to secure his late conquests. His presence, as might be expected, inspired his subjects with joy ; but they, at the same time, could not be much pleased with a conquest, which seemed likely to transfer the seat of empire from among them. The parliament, upon various pretences, refused him a

supply equal to his demands: however, he again set sail with a new raised army, and the Dauphin, upon his appearance, thought fit again to retire. Henry then entered Paris, and while Charles had but a small court, he was attended with a very magnificent one. On Whitsunday they dined together in public, the two kings and the two queens with their crowns on their heads; Charles, indeed, receiving apparent homage, but Henry commanding with absolute authority. After this, he prepared to stop the progress of the enemy, who had already taken some towns; but while he flattered himself with a speedy victory, he was attacked with a fistula, which the physicians were at that time too unskilful to treat with judgment. He died at the castle of Vincennes, with the same intrepidity with which he lived, and was buried in Westminster Abbey. His reign, during the short time he lived, which was but thirty-four years, was rather splendid than serviceable; the treasures of his native country were lavished upon conquests that to it were unprofitable. His military fame acquired him the reputation of every other good quality; he favoured the clergy, and they have returned the debt to his memory. In general, the good or the erroneous conduct of a prince appears rather after his death than during his life-time; and the successors of imprudent kings are often taxed with errors not their own, as we shall presently see. He died, however, fortunate, by falling in the midst of his triumphs, and leaving his subjects with reputation.¹ Charles, who died two months after him, finished a wretched reign, long passed in phrenzy, and with contempt, branded by all France, and leaving the most miserable subjects upon earth. I am, &c.

LETTER XXX.

[THE REFORMATION: HENRY VIII.: WOLSEY.]

As, in a family, the faults and the impertinence of servants are often to be ascribed to their masters; so, in a state, the vices and the insolence of favourites should be

¹ The first edition reads:—"leaving his subjects happy."—ED.

justly attributed to the king who employs them. The pride of Wolsey was great, but his riches were still greater; and, in order to have a pretext for amassing such sums, he undertook to found two new colleges at Oxford, for which he received every day fresh grants from the pope and the king. To execute his scheme, he obtained a liberty of suppressing several monasteries, and converting their funds to the benefit of his intended scheme. Whatever might have been the pope's inducement to grant him these privileges, nothing could be more fatal to the pontiff's interests; for Henry was thus himself taught to imitate afterward, what he had seen a subject perform without crime or danger.

Hitherto the administration of affairs was carried on by Wolsey alone; as for the king, he lost in the embraces of his mistresses all the complaints of the nation, and the cardinal undertook to keep him ignorant, in order to maintain his own authority. But now a period approached that was to put an end to this minister's exorbitant power; one of the most extraordinary and important revolutions that ever employed the attention of man was now ripe for execution. But to have a clear idea of this grand reformation, it will be proper to take a cursory view of the state of the church at that time, and observe by what seemingly contradictory means Providence produces the happiest events.

The church of Rome had now for more than a thousand years been corrupting the sacred doctrines of Christianity, and converting into a temporality the kingdom of another world. The popes were frequently found at the head of their own armies, fighting for their dominions with the arm of flesh, and forgetting, in cruelty and immoral politics, all the pretended sanctity of their character. They had drained other kingdoms of their treasures upon the most infamous pretexts, and were proud of setting at Rome, in their own conduct, an example of refined pleasure and studied luxury. The cardinals, prelates, and dignitaries of the church, lived and were served like voluptuous princes, and some of them were found to possess eight or nine bishoprics at a time. Wherever the church governs, it exerts its power with cruelty; and to their luxury these great ones added the crime of being tyrants too.

As for the inferior clergy, both popish and protestant

writers exclaim against their dissolute and abandoned morals. They publicly kept mistresses, and bequeathed to their bastards whatever they were able to save from their pleasures, or extort from the poor. There is still to be seen, says a fine writer, a will made by a Bishop of Cambray, in which he sets aside a certain sum *for the bastards he has had already, and those which, by the blessing of God, he may yet happen to have.* In many parts of England and Germany, the people obliged the priests to have concubines, so that the laity might keep their wives in greater security; while the poor laborious peasant and artizan saw all the fruits of their toil go, not to clothe and maintain their own little families, but to pamper men who insulted and despised them.

But the vices of the clergy were not greater than their ignorance; few of them knew the meaning of their own Latin mass: they were chiefly employed in finding out witches, and exorcising the possessed. But what most increased the hatred of the people against them was, the selling pardons and absolutions for sin at certain stated prices. A deacon, or subdeacon, who should commit murder, was absolved from the crime, and allowed to possess three benefices, upon paying twenty crowns. A bishop or an abbot might commit murder for ten pounds. Every crime had its stated price, and absolutions were given not only for sins already committed, but for such as should be committed hereafter. The wisest of the people looked with silent detestation on these impositions, and the ignorant, whom nature seemed to have formed for slavery, began to open their eyes to such glaring absurdities.

There arose, at last, a champion to rescue human nature from its degeneracy. This was the famous Martin Luther. Leo X. being employed in building the church of St. Peter, at Rome, in the year 1519, in order to procure money for carrying on this project, gave a commission for selling indulgences, or, in other words, a deliverance from the pains of purgatory, either for one's self or other friends.¹ There were every where shops opened, where these were sold; but in general they were to be had at taverns and such like

¹ The first edition has "or their friends."—ED.

places. These indulgences were granted to the Dominican friars, to be distributed by them, whereas the Augustine friars had been in possession of the distribution of them time out of mind before. Martin Luther was an Augustine monk, and one of those who resented this transferring the sale of indulgences to another order. He began to show his indignation, by preaching against their efficacy: opposition soon drove him further than he first intended to go, and, now the veil was lifted, he proceeded to examine the authority of the pope himself. The people, who had long groaned under the papal tyranny, heard his discourses with pleasure, and defended him against the authority and machinations of the church of Rome. Frederic, Elector of Saxony, surnamed the Wise, openly protected him. Luther as openly declaimed against the number of sacraments, reducing the seven held by the church of Rome, first to three, and afterwards to two; from thence he proceeded to examine the doctrine of transubstantiation, to show the folly of supposing a purgatory, and the dangerous consequence of celibacy among the clergy.

The pope issued out his bulls against Luther; and the Dominican friars procured his books to be burned. Luther abused the Dominicans, and boldly, in the streets of Wirtemberg, burned the bull of the pope. In the mean time, the dispute was carried on by writings on either side: Luther, though opposed by the pope, the cardinals, and all the body of the clergy, supported his cause singly and with success. If, indeed, we look into his works at this day, we shall find them trifling and unsatisfactory enough; but then he had only ignorance to contend with, and, ill as he wrote, they answered still worse. Opinions are inculcated upon the minds of the public, rather by fortitude and perseverance, than by strength of reasoning and beauty of thought, and no man had more fortitude and more perseverance than he.

In this dispute it was the fate of Henry VIII. to be one of the champions. His father, who had given him the education of a scholar, permitted him to be instructed in school divinity, which then composed the learning of the times. He was, therefore, willing to give the world a demonstration of his abilities in this respect, and desired the

pope's permission to read the works of Luther, which had been forbidden to be read, under pain of excommunication. Having readily obtained this request, the king defended the seven sacraments, from St. Thomas Aquinas, and showed some skill in school divinity, though it is thought that Wolsey had the chief hand in directing him. A book being thus finished in haste, it was sent to Rome for the pope's approbation: the pope, ravished with its eloquence and depth, compared the work to that of St. Augustine or St. Jerome, and gave Henry the title of *Defender of the Faith*; little suspecting that Henry was soon going to be one of the most terrible enemies that ever the church of Rome had yet met with.

Besides these causes, which contributed to render the Romish church odious or contemptible, there were still others, proceeding from political motives. Clement VII. had succeeded Leo, and the hereditary animosity between the emperor and the pope breaking out into a war, Clement was imprisoned in the castle of St. Angelo, and, with thirteen cardinals beside, kept in custody for his ransom. As the demands of the emperor were exorbitant, Henry undertook to negotiate for the pope, and procured a treaty in his favour; but his holiness, in the mean time, corrupting his guards, had the good fortune to escape from confinement, and left the treaty unfinished, but sent Henry a letter of thanks for his mediation. The conduct of the emperor showed Henry that the pope might be injured with impunity; and the behaviour of the pope manifested but little of that sanctity or infallibility to which the pontiffs pretended. Besides, as he had obliged the pope, he supposed that he might upon any emergency, expect a return of favour.

It was in this situation of the church and of the pope, that a new drama was going to be performed, which was to change the whole system of Europe. Henry had now been married eighteen years to Catharine of Arragon, who had been brought over from Spain to marry his eldest brother, prince Arthur, who died some months after his cohabitation with her. Henry had three children by this lady, one of whom was still living, while she herself was esteemed for her virtue and the gentleness of her disposi-

tion. The king, though he felt no real passion, either for the qualifications of her mind or person, yet for a long time broke out into no flagrant contempt; he ranged from beauty to beauty in the court, and his title and authority always procured him a ready compliance from female frailty. It happened at length that, among the maids of honour that then attended the queen, there was one Anna Bullen, the daughter of a gentleman of distinction, though not of the nobility. Her beauty surpassed what had hitherto appeared at his voluptuous court: her features were regular, mild, and attractive: her stature elegant, though below the middle size; while her wit and vivacity even exceeded the allurements of her person. The king, who never restrained one passion he desired to gratify, saw, and loved her; but after several efforts to induce her to comply with his criminal passion, he found that, without marriage, he could have no hopes of succeeding. This obstacle, therefore, he quickly undertook to remove: his own queen was now become hateful to him: and, in order to procure a divorce, he pretended that his conscience rebuked him, for having so long lived in incest with his present queen, formerly his brother's wife. This every person of candour saw was only a pretext to cover his real motive: he himself had eagerly solicited the match with queen Catharine; he had lived with her eighteen years without any scruple, and had the pope's licence for this cohabitation: but he asserted that a wounded conscience was his motive, and none of his subjects offered to divulge the real one.

In this perplexity, therefore, he applied to Clement VII., who owed him obligations, and from whom he expected a ready compliance, to dissolve the bull of the former pope, who had given him permission to marry Catharine, and to declare that it was contrary to all laws, both divine and human. Clement was now in the utmost perplexity. Queen Catharine was aunt to the emperor, who had lately made him a prisoner, and whose resentment he dreaded to rekindle, by thus injuring so near a relation: besides, he could not, in honour, declare the bull of a former pope illicit, for this would be entirely destroying the papal infallibility. On the other hand, Henry was his protector

and friend; the dominions of England were the chief resource of his finances; and the king of France, some time before, had got a bill of divorce in somewhat similar circumstances. In this exigence, he thought the best method was to spin out the affair by a negotiation: and thus he argued, temporized, promised, recanted, and disputed, hoping that the king's passion would never hold out during the tedious course of an ecclesiastical controversy. In this he was mistaken; Henry had been taught to argue as well as he, and quickly found, or wrested, many texts of Scripture, to favour his opinions and his passions. To his arguments, he added threats, which probably had greater influence: the pope was assured, that the English were already but too much disposed to withdraw their obedience from the holy see, and that if he continued to refuse, the whole country would readily follow their monarch's example, and exclude themselves from his protection. The king even proposed to his holiness, whether, if he were denied the putting away his present queen, he might not have a dispensation to marry two wives at a time? The pope, though his measures were already taken not to grant the bull, yet still seemed unresolved, as if waiting for more full and authentic information.

During these solicitations, on which Henry's happiness seemed to depend, he expected in his favourite Wolsey, a warm defender, and a steady adherent; but in this he was mistaken.¹ Wolsey seemed to be in pretty much such a dilemma as the pope himself. On the one hand, he was to please his master the king, from whom he had received a thousand marks of favour; on the other hand, he could not disoblige the pope, whose servant he more immediately was, and who had power to punish his disobedience. In this dilemma, he chose to stand neuter: though, of all mankind, he was the most haughty, he on this occasion gave way in all things to his colleague, cardinal Campeggio, sent by the pope from Italy. Wolsey's method of temporizing highly disgusted the king, yet he endeavoured to conceal his resentment; he now only looked out for some man of equal abilities and less art, and it was not long before

¹ The first edition has "deceived."—ED.

accident threw in his way one Thomas Cranmer, of greater abilities¹ than the former, and rather more integrity. Cranmer was a doctor of divinity, and a professor at Cambridge, but had lost his place upon marrying contrary to the institutes of the canon law, which enjoined celibacy. He had travelled into Germany, where he read Luther's works, and embraced his doctrine; and upon his return, was tutor to the sons of a gentleman who one night happened to entertain two of the principal men of the court. Cranmer being asked his opinion of the king's divorce, which was then the topic of the conversation, delivered himself in so learned a manner, that the king was soon informed of his abilities, and ordered him to follow the court.

The king's resentment now appeared more openly against the cardinal. The attorney-general was ordered to prepare a bill of indictment against him, and soon after he himself was ordered to resign the great seal. Crimes are readily found against a man, when he is hated, and the cardinal was sentenced to be excluded from the protection of the laws. As soon as he was outlawed, the king commanded him to retire to a country-house, and directed that an inventory of his goods should be taken, which contained immense riches, acquired by various methods of guilt and extortion: of fine holland, alone, there were found in his houses a thousand pieces, which may serve to give an idea of the rest of his wealth. The parliament confirmed the sentence of the courts, and he was sent an exile to his country-seat, there to await the king's disposal of his person, with all the fluctuations of hope and apprehension. Still, however, he was left the archbishopric of York; and even shattered as his fortunes were, he was resolved to perform the ceremony of his instalment there with a magnificence little suitable to his present condition: but while he was preparing to enjoy, in his retreat, those splendours which he ever loved, by another unexpected revolution, he was, at the king's command, arrested by the Earl of Northumberland for high treason. He at first refused to comply, as being a cardinal: but finding the Earl bent

¹ A late edition has "of inferior abilities," &c., and perhaps this is what Goldsmith wrote, or meant to write.—Ed.

upon performing his commission, he complied, and set out, by easy journeys, for London, to appear as a criminal, in a place where formerly he acted as a king. In his way he stayed a fortnight at the Earl of Shrewsbury's, where one day, at dinner, he was taken ill, not without violent suspicion of having poisoned himself: being brought forward from thence, with much difficulty, he reached Leicester Abbey, where, the monks coming out to receive him, he said, "Father abbot, I am come to lay my bones among you." As his disorder increased, an officer being placed near his bedside, at once to guard and attend him, he cried out to him: "*O, if I had served my God as I have served my king, he would not thus have forsaken me in adversity.*" He died soon after in all the pangs of repentance and remorse, and left a life,¹ which he had rendered turbid by ambition, till he found that all his ambition was but vanity at the last. He left two natural children behind him, one of whom, being a priest, was loaded with church preferments. Henry, being thus freed from a person whom he considered as an obstacle to his intentions, by the advice of Cranmer, had the legality of his present marriage canvassed in the different universities of Europe. It was very extraordinary to see the king on one side soliciting the universities to be favourable to his passion, and on the other the emperor pressing them to incline to his aunt: Henry liberally rewarded those doctors who declared in his favour, and the emperor granted benefices to such as voted on his side of the debate. Time has discovered these intrigues. In one of Henry's account-books, we find the disbursements he made upon these occasions: to a deacon he gave a crown, to a subdeacon two crowns, and so of the rest, to each in proportion to his consequence. The person who bribed upon these occasions, however, excused himself by declaring, that he never paid the money till after the vote was given. Henry at length prevailed: his liberalities were greater than those of his rival, as he was most interested in the success of the debate: all the colleges in Italy and France unanimously declared his present marriage against all law, divine and human, and that therefore it was not at first in

¹ Query: left *not* a life, &c. ?—ED.

the power of the pope to grant a dispensation. The only places where it was most warmly opposed, were at Cambridge and Oxford: these universities, it seems, had, even then, more freedom and integrity than were to be found elsewhere; but at last they also concurred in the same opinion.

The agents of Henry were not content with the suffrages of the universities; the opinions of the Rabbi's were also demanded, but they were easily bought up in his favour. Thus fortified, the king was resolved to oppose even the pope himself; for his passion could by no means brook the delays and subterfuges of the holy see: being therefore supported by his clergy, and authorized by the universities; having seen the pope formerly degraded by a lay monarch, and Luther's doctrine followed by thousands; and yet still further instigated by the king of France, he, without further dispensation, annulled his marriage with queen Catharine; and Cranmer, now become an archbishop, pronounced the decree.

The queen, during this contest, always supported her rights with resolution, and yet with modesty: at length, however, having found the inutility of further resistance, she retired to the country, without once offering to complain: she saw the power of her rival, and yielded without murmuring. Anna Bullen had already consented to marry the king, and even shared his bed two months before his marriage with Catharine was dissolved. Though her prudence and her virtue demanded esteem in the former parts of her conduct, yet she now for a moment forgot the ties of each, and gave a loose to her triumph. She passed through London with a magnificence greater than ever had been known before; the streets were strewed, the walls were hung, the conduits ran with wine, while she and her corpulent lover rode through the city like the heroine and knight of a romance.

In the mean time, the pope now thought himself obliged to hold no measures with the king: and being so frightened by the menaces of the emperor, published a sentence, declaring queen Catharine alone to be Henry's lawful wife, and requiring him to take her again, with a denunciation of censures in case of refusal. When Henry received news

of the sentence given against him at Rome, he was convinced that no measures could be kept with the holy see, and therefore no longer delayed to execute his long-meditated scheme of separating entirely from the church of Rome. The parliament was at his devotion; a part of the clergy was for him, as they had already declared against the pope, when they had decreed in favour of the divorce; the people were flattered with the expectations of being rid of the burden of their taxes; and such as were displeased to see Italian bishops hold English church preferments, expected their downfall: in short, all things conspired to co-operate with his designs; he therefore at once ordered himself to be declared by his clergy Head of the Church. The parliament confirmed this title, and abolished all the authority of the pope in England, the tribute of Peter-pence, and the collation to ecclesiastical benefices. The people came into the king's proposal with joy, and took an oath, called the oath of supremacy: all the credit of the pope, that had subsisted for ages, was now at once overthrown, and few, except those who held to the religious houses, seemed dissatisfied. They, who believed that it would have been dangerous to break with the pope, were now convinced that it could be effected with impunity; and it was soon perceived, that all authority which is not supported by power, is nothing but an empty name.

I am, &c.

LETTER XXXIV.

[COMMENCEMENT OF THE REIGN OF QUEEN ELIZABETH.]

WERE we to adopt the maxim of some, that evil may be done for the production of good, one might say, that the persecutions in Mary's reign were permitted only to bring the kingdom over to the protestant religion. Nothing could preach so effectually against the cruelty and the vices of the monks as the actions of the monks themselves: wherever heretics were to be burnt they were always present, rejoicing at the spectacle, insulting the fallen, and frequently the first to thrust the flaming brand against the

faces of the condemned. The English were effectually converted by such sights as these. To bring any people over to any opinion, it is only necessary to persecute instead of attempting to convince. The people had formerly embraced the reformed religion from fear, they were now internally protestants from inclination.

We have hitherto seen England, like the element that surrounds it, ever unsettled and stormy; ever sinking under foreign invasion or domestic disputes: it had felt a short interval of happiness, indeed, under Henry VII., but his successors soon disturbed that felicity, and laid the country once more in blood. At length the genius of the people prevailed over all opposition, and England was now about to make its own happiness, and to set mankind an example of industry, commerce, freedom, learning, opulence, and politeness.¹

To Mary, succeeded her sister Elizabeth, who was unanimously declared queen at the accustomed places, and with the acclamations of the people. Elizabeth had her education in the best of schools—the school of adversity. As, during the life of her sister, who had no children, she was next heir to the throne, and at the same time was known to be of the protestant religion, she was obnoxious to the reigning tyrant for two reasons: it was feared she might aspire to the throne during her sister's life; but it was still more reasonably apprehended that she would, if ever she came to the crown, make an innovation in that religion which Mary took so much pains to establish. The bishops, who had shed such a deluge of blood, foresaw this, and often told Mary, that her destroying meaner heretics was of no advantage to the state, unless she attacked the principal heretic; that it was to no purpose to lop off the branches, while the body of the tree was suffered to stand. Mary saw and acknowledged the justice of their observations, confined her sister with proper guards, and only waited for some new insurrection, or some favourable pretext, to destroy her: her own death prevented the perpetration of her meditated cruelty, and Elizabeth was taken from prison to be fixed upon a throne.

¹ In the first edition the last two words were, “and power.”—ED.

Elizabeth had made the proper use of her confinement; being debarred the enjoyment of pleasures abroad, she sought for knowledge at home; she cultivated her understanding, learned the languages and sciences; but in all the arts in which she excelled, her art of keeping fair with her sister, of not offending the papists, of being in esteem with the protestants, of dissembling and learning to reign, were the greatest.

This virgin monarch, whose memory England still reveres with gratitude and respect, was scarce proclaimed queen, when Philip of Spain, who had been married to Mary, but who ever testified an inclination for Elizabeth, sought her in marriage. What political motives Elizabeth might have against this match, is uncertain; but certain it is, she neither liked the person nor the religion of her admirer: she was willing at once to enjoy the pleasure of independence and the vanity of numerous solicitations.

She had ever resolved upon reforming the church, even in the restraints of a prison; and, upon coming to the throne, she immediately set about that great design. The people were now almost wholly of the protestant religion; the ill use the papists had made of their power in the last reign had totally undone their cause: a religion marked with cruelty, tyranny, and persecution, was not a religion for the people of England. She began, therefore, in imitation of the deceased queen, to forbid all meddling with controversy in the pulpit, and all innovations of the established rights, except that the service should be performed in the vulgar tongue, till the parliament should determine the proper modes of worship. The parliament soon met, and the reformation was finished, and religion established in the manner we enjoy it at present.

The opposition which was made to these religious establishments was but weak: a conference of nine doctors on each side was proposed and agreed to: they were to dispute publicly on either side of the question; and it was resolved that the people should hold with that which came off with victory. Disputations of this kind are never attended with conviction to either party: so much is to be said on either side, and so wide is the field that both sides have to range in, that each generally loses its strength in vain prepara-

tions, and ineffectually prefacing, before he is properly said to begin the engagement. The conference, therefore, came to nothing: the papists declared that it was not in their power to dispute a second time upon topics in which they had gained a former victory, under queen Mary; and the protestants ascribed their caution to their fears. Of nine thousand four hundred beneficed clergymen, which were in the whole kingdom, only fourteen bishops, twelve archdeacons, fifteen heads of colleges, and about eighty of the parochial clergy, chose to quit their preferments rather than their religion. Thus England changed its belief in religion four times since Henry VIII. Strange, says a foreign writer, that a people who are so resolute, should be guilty of so much inconstancy! that the same people who this day publicly burnt heretics, should the next not only think them guiltless, but conform to their opinions!

Elizabeth was now fixed upon a protestant throne, while all the neighbouring nations were open or secret enemies; France, Scotland, Spain, the pope, were all combined against her; her subjects of Ireland were concealed enemies, and the catholic party in England, though not so numerous as formerly, was not yet entirely suppressed: these were the dangers she had to fear, nor had she one friend to assist her upon an emergency. In this situation, therefore, she could hope for no other resource but what proceeded from the affection of her own subjects, and the wisdom of her administration. To make herself beloved by the people, and, at the same time, feared by her courtiers, were the governing maxims of her conduct. She was frugal of the public treasure, and still more sparing in her rewards to her favourites: this at once kept the people in spirits, and kept the great too poor to shake off lawful subjection. She distributed both rewards and punishments with impartiality; knew when to flatter, and when to upbraid; could dissemble submission, but preserve her prerogatives: in short, she seemed to have studied the people she was to govern, and often to have flattered their follies in order to secure their hearts.

Her chief minister was Robert Dudley, son to the late Duke of Northumberland, whom the queen seemed to regard from capricious motives, as he had neither abilities

nor virtue ; but to make amends, the two favourites next in power were Bacon¹ and Cecil, men of great capacity and infinite application. They regulated the finances, and directed the political measures that were followed with so much success.

Mary Stuart, queen of France and Scotland, gave the first alarm to this state of tranquillity, by taking the title of queen of England ; and her cause was supported by the popish faction, which still wanted to make new disturbances. The throne of Elizabeth was not yet perfectly fixed, and the intrigues of the disaffected could still overturn it ; she, therefore, was not remiss in sending an army into Scotland, and forcing the French troops out of that kingdom, by a treaty signed to that effect. Soon after, the king of France died ; and Elizabeth forced her rival to renounce the title of queen of England, which she had assumed. She went yet still further ; she encouraged the parliament of Scotland to introduce the reformation into that country : her intrigues succeeded, and she thus gained over a stedfast friend in the Scots, from whom the English had, till then, only received repeated acts of enmity and ill-will.

This tempest was scarce allayed, when Philip of Spain gave new alarms. As long as he had fears from the power of the queen of Scots, by her union with France, he was still attached to Elizabeth ; but when, by the death of the king of France her husband, she was again reduced to her primitive weakness, his jealousy then began to fall upon Elizabeth. With this view, he encouraged the insurrections and discontents in Ireland, and Elizabeth, with equal care, suppressed them. He supported, in France, a league made to exclude the royal family from the throne ; Elizabeth protected the opposite side. He oppressed the people of Holland with cruelty and injustice ; Elizabeth supported them from sinking under his power. Thus, on every side, she guarded off the dangers that threatened her, and soon after, in her turn, prepared an act offensively against her enemies.

But the cares of war did not repress her assiduity in the

¹ Sir Nicholas Bacon, the father of the greater Francis Bacon.—ED.

administration of justice at home: she was resolved to show the Roman catholic party an example of moderation, which they might admire, but could not imitate. The monks, who were dispossessed of their monasteries, had been assigned pensions, which were to be paid by the possessors of the forfeited lands. These payments were entirely neglected, and those unhappy men, who had been educated in solitude and ignorance, were now starving in old age, too much disregarded by the protestants, and too numerous to find relief from those of their own persuasion. Elizabeth ordered that their pensions should be paid with punctuality and justice, and satisfaction made for all arrears unjustly detained.

In order the more to ingratiate herself with the people, she visited Cambridge and Oxford, and made each a Latin speech, and showed by her discourse and conduct, a regard for those seminaries of learning which had been suppressed by her father.

She not only affected this obliging carriage to her inferiors, but also behaved in something of a romantic strain to the courtiers next her person. The gallantries of the court were conducted according to the rules of chivalry: every damsel had her knight: Dudley, who was now become earl of Leicester, was generally the queen's: but all writers agree, that her passion for him never proceeded beyond the bounds of Platonic affection.¹ When her commons, in a dutiful manner, represented to her how much the safety of the kingdom depended upon her marrying, she thanked them in an obliging manner, and assured them she was now become the wife of her people, and would be pleased at having it inscribed on her tomb, That having reigned with equity, she lived and died a virgin.

I am, &c.

¹ See some similar remarks in the account of Elizabeth's court in the 'Sequel to the Poetical Scale' (vol. iv. p. 423).—Ed.

LETTER XXXVII.

[ENGLAND UNDER ELIZABETH.]

WHATEVER punishments or cruelties were exerted in this reign, they mostly fell upon the great ; but never were the people of England more happy internally, or more formidable abroad, than during this period. The vices and virtues of a nation are often wholly ascribed to the monarch who rules them ; but such influence extends only to a narrow sphere : no single reign, however good, nor indeed any succession of virtuous reigns, can give happiness morals and arts a general spread, unless the people be predisposed for the reception. From Nerva to Antoninus, what a noble succession of Roman emperors ! and yet, even under them, Rome was declining fast into barbarity. It was not owing to Elizabeth alone that England enjoyed all its present happiness : the people, as if spontaneously, began to exert their native vigour, and every art and every genius put forth all their powers.

The English were put in possession of neither new nor splendid acquisitions, nor had they such great influence in foreign courts ; but commerce grew up among them, and almost without a protector, flourished with vigour. The people began to know their real element ; and this rendered them more happy than the foreign conquests, or the former victories of the celebrated kings : a nation which was once subject to every invasion, and the prey of every plunderer, now became powerful, polite, laborious, and enterprising. The newly successful voyages of the Spaniards and Portuguese excited their emulation : they fitted out several expeditions for discovering a northern passage to China ; and, though disappointed in their aim, their voyages were not wholly fruitless. Drake and Cavendish surrounded the globe, and discovered skill and courage superior to those very nations which had first showed them the way. The famous Sir Walter Raleigh, without any assistance from the government, colonized New England. These expedi-

tions at length formed one of the most powerful marines of Europe, and they were able to oppose the fleet of Spain, called by the boasting title of the Invincible Armada, with a hundred ships; and this fleet of Spain being destroyed, the English remained masters at sea. This superiority was constantly increasing, till another victory, gained over the fleet of Philip III., gained them a naval sovereignty, which they have ever since inviolably preserved, and which has been scarce ever molested by a competitor.

But external commerce was not more cultivated than internal manufactures. Several of the Flemings, who were persecuted from their own country, by the bad conduct of Spain, found an asylum in England. These more than repaid the protection they found, by the arts which they introduced, and the industry which was thus propagated by their example.

Thus far in the useful arts: but in the polite arts, England excelled all the world; so that many writers fix the Augustan age of literature to that period. The disputes caused by the reformation of religion had retarded the progress of our language among the powerful, yet spread a love of literature among the lower order of the state. The people now began to learn to read; and the Bible, translated into the vulgar tongue, was not only serviceable in improving their morals, but their taste. The persecution of Mary was, however, of great detriment to the language: the reformers, being driven into foreign countries, on their return introduced into their sermons a language compounded of those dialects which they had acquired abroad; and the language of England was actually in a state of barbarity when Elizabeth came to the throne. Latin sermons were in fashion; and few of the nobility had either the courage or the taste to declare themselves the patrons of learning.

Either the fortune or the discernment of Elizabeth made Parker archbishop of Canterbury; and he set himself assiduously to reform the corruptions of style, both by precept and example. For this purpose he reviewed and corrected the English translation of the Bible, and printed it with royal magnificence. His own style had all the

eloquence of the times: it was manly and concise, but wanted smoothness.¹

The Earl of Essex, a sketch of whose history you have seen, was himself one of the greatest improvers of our language; his education had freed him from the technical barbarities of the school, and his style ran on unembarrassed by the stiffness of pedantry. His letters (particularly that which he wrote from Ireland to the queen) are regarded as models of fine writing to this day.² Sir Walter Raleigh has the reputation of being one of the improvers of our language, and none can contest with him the honour of being foremost in the improvement of our history. Hooker, the author of the Ecclesiastical Polity, was the first Englishman whose style, upon theological subjects, does honour to his memory as a scholar and a gentleman: but what particularly deserves notice is, that a man like him, bred up in poverty, and seclusion from the polite, should express himself in a more modern and elegant manner than his contemporary authors, Sidney or Raleigh, who were bred at court.

I shall mention only one prose writer more, the greatest and wisest of all our English philosophers, and, perhaps, the greatest philosopher among men: I need hardly mention the name of Francis Bacon, lord Verulam: his style is copious and correct, and his learning only surpassed by his genius.

Among the poets, two of particular note attract our attention, Spenser and Shakspear: to attempt an encomium of either is needless: all praise must be too low for their merits, or unnecessary to make them more known.

In short, the English now began to rival the Spaniards, who, at that time, aimed at universal monarchy, both in arts and arms. The city of London became more large, and more beautiful; the people of the country began to

¹ Most of the matter of this Letter closely follows the account of Elizabeth's time in the 'History of Our Own Language,' the same words being sometimes used. An instance is the use of the word "reviewed," descriptive of Parker's revision of the Bible. See pp. 448-451, vol. iv.—ED.

² Here again, is a similar estimate of Essex to that contained in 'Our Own Language' (vol. iv. p. 449).—ED.

consider agriculture as one of the most useful and honourable employments; the English were, in power, the second nation in Europe, and they were shortly to become the greatest, by becoming the most free.

During this reign, a few suffered death for their religious opinions; but we may venture to assert that they raised the disturbances by which they suffered; for those who lived in quiet were permitted to enjoy their opinions, under the necessary restraints.

If we look through history, and consider the rise of kingdoms, we shall not find, in all its volumes, such an instance of a nation becoming wise, powerful, and happy, in so short a time. The source of our felicity began in Henry VII.; and, though repressed by the intervening tyrannies, yet, before the end of Elizabeth's reign, who was only his grand-daughter, the English became the most polished and the most happy people upon earth. Liberty, it is true, as yet continued to fluctuate: Elizabeth knew her own power, and often stretched it to the very limits of despotism: but when commerce was introduced, liberty necessarily entered in its train; for there never was a nation perfectly commercial and perfectly despotic.

I am, &c.

LETTER II. [VOL. II.]

[CHARLES I. AND THE "SHIP MONEY."]

A MONARCHICAL government has ever been looked upon as best, when wisely administered. We are so constituted by nature that some are born to command, others to obey. In a republic, how free soever, the people cannot govern themselves, and the leaders must be tyrants over their own narrow circle of subjects. In a monarchy the governor is placed at a distance from the many, as he is but one; in a republic, the tyrants are near, because they are many: in the former, the people are subject to oppression from errors of will; in the latter, they are harassed by the rigours of the law. In a monarchy the redress of grievances is

speedy ; in a republic, dilatory and uncertain : in the one, punishments are few ; in the other, severe and numerous, from the debility of the constitution.¹

The present parliament seemed not so intent upon abridging the king's power, as upon entirely abolishing it : they were Calvinists, and it is the spirit of Calvinism to throw off the restraints of royalty. The English had lately seen this happily effected in Switzerland and Holland, and, influenced by such examples, seemed desirous of imitation.

You have seen the king and the English parliament now almost prepared for an open rupture ; still, however, the commons kept within the bounds of humble remonstrance ; and, while they refused his majesty's demands, asked pardon for their delay. They had still a respect for their monarch, which even their republican principles could not entirely efface ; and though they were willing to wound, yet they feared to strike an open blow. The Scotch soon set them an example of resistance : they had, in that kingdom, long embraced the Calvinistical doctrines ; and, though they still had bishops, these were reduced to poverty, and treated with contempt. James I. attempted to exalt the bishops, and to introduce the rites and the liturgy of the church of England among them, but died in the midst of his endeavours. Charles, therefore, was resolved to complete what his father had begun. This unnecessary and ill-judged attempt alienated the affections of his Scotch subjects. The sedition passed from city to city ; the Calvinists formed a league, as if all the laws, divine and human, were infringed ; while the desire, in the court party, of supporting their commands, and in the people, of defending their religion, soon excited, actually in Scotland, those dangers which, in England, were as yet only apprehended.

In such a situation the king could only repress the presumption of his Scotch subjects by the assistance of those of England : but he had lately dissolved his parliament, and seemed no way disposed to call another ; he had cut off the sources of every supply in cases of emergency, and

¹ Compare the opening of the next Letter.—ED.

fondly hoped he could govern merely by the terror of royalty. His favourites helped to confirm his errors; they were fond of arbitrary power, because they shared its indulgencies: the privy council considered itself as absolute; the Star-chamber, as it was called, severely punished all who denied the prerogative royal; the High Commission Court now turned from defending the papists against the puritans, whom they justly feared as tinctured with the spirit of resistance: the very judges also, being chosen by the court, were entirely devoted to the king: so that all conspired to lift him above justice, and induced him to call those parliaments no more, whose maxims of government he found diametrically opposite to his own. He was therefore resolved to fix upon other methods of raising money; methods, indeed, which were practised by his predecessors, but at times when they had power to control even justice, and force to compel their subjects to obey. Charles, in the midst of a civil war in Scotland, and the discontents of his people at home, at a time when one half of his subjects were preaching sedition, and the other half were learning to despise kings, without army and without treasures, resolved to reign with arbitrary power.

With the taxes which he levied without parliaments in England, he undertook to bring about the reformation in Scotland; and therefore began, as his parliament was now no more, to collect a tax upon the subject, called *Ship-money*. This is that famous tax which first roused a whole nation, after an unsettled constitution of more than a thousand years, at length to fix and determine the bounds of their own freedom and the king's prerogative.

To give a sanction to the royal orders, this tax was backed by the opinion of all the judges, who voted it to be customary and legal. Their opinion will, at once, serve to explain the nature of this tax, and what they judged concerning it. It runs thus: *We, every man by himself, and all of us together, have taken into serious consideration the case and question concerning Ship-money; and it is our opinion, that when the good and safety of the kingdom in general is concerned, and the kingdom in danger, that your majesty may, by writ under the great seal of England, command all your subjects of this your kingdom, at their charge, to provide and furnish such*

number of ships, with men, victuals, and ammunition, and for such time, as your majesty shall think fit, for the defence and safety of this kingdom from such danger and peril; and that, by law, your majesty may compel the doing thereof, in case of refusal or refractoriness: and we are also of opinion, that in such case your majesty is the sole judge both of the danger, and when and how the same is to be prevented and avoided, &c.

An order from the throne thus backed by the opinion of all the judges, it was thought, would be at once complied with; but the king was deceived. A private man of courage and integrity, one John Hampden, stood forth as the champion for the people, and refused to pay a tax not authorized by parliament. The sum at which he was rated amounted to but twenty shillings, yet he refused to contribute even this, and brought his cause before the court of exchequer. Never was a greater cause argued in any court before. The judges, by their sentence, were to determine whether the nation, and their posterity, were to be subject to arbitrary power, or to enjoy freedom. The judges determined in favour of servitude; Hampden was cast; and this only served to increase the discontents of the people.

The discontent and opposition the king found among his English subjects, one would have thought, might serve to repress his ardour for reformation in the religion of Scotland. Having published an order for reading the liturgy in the principal church in Edinburgh, the people received it with clamours and imprecations: the court party blamed their obstinacy, as the innovations were trifling: but this was retorted against themselves with still greater force for labouring so earnestly at the establishment of trifles. The sedition in that kingdom, which had hitherto been secret, was now kept concealed no longer; rebellion had, as it were, set up its standard among them. Yet still the king could not resolve to desist from his design; and so prepossessed was he in favour of royal right, that he thought the very name of a king would influence them to return to duty. He was soon undeceived; the Scotch Calvinists, whose principles were republican, entered into a covenant to suppress the bishops, and resist the king's authority. This was judged an open declaration of war, and Charles summoned the no-

bility of England, who held lands of the crown, to furnish a proper number of forces to suppress them. To add to his supplies, he demanded a voluntary contribution from the clergy; and, by means of his queen, the catholics also were pressed for their assistance. By these methods he found himself at the head of an undisciplined and reluctant army amounting to about twenty thousand men, commanded by generals more willing to negotiate than to fight. However, his superiority of numbers gave him a manifest advantage over the malcontents, who were not slow in marching to oppose him. Charles had inherited the peaceful disposition of his father: he was unwilling to come to extremities, although a blow then struck with vigour might have prevented many of his succeeding misfortunes. Instead of fighting, he entered upon a treaty: a suspension was concluded upon, and terms agreed to, that neither side intended to observe. This suspension and disbanding the armies was a fatal step to the king: the Scotch forces could be again mustered at pleasure: the English troops, not without time, difficulty, and expense. Of this the malcontents were sensible, and the negotiations met with obstructions, in proportion as they were confident of their power. In short, after much altercation, and many treaties signed and broken, both parties once more resolved upon a war.

War being resolved on, the king now took every method to raise money for maintaining it. Ship-money was levied as before, and some other arbitrary taxes were exacted with great severity: but one method of increasing supplies reflects immortal honour upon those who granted them. His counsellors and servants lent the king whatever sums they could spare, and distressed their private fortunes to serve the state. Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury, and the Marquis of Hamilton, contributed very large sums; but particularly Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, gave his majesty twenty thousand pounds. Wentworth was one of the great characters that marked those celebrated times. Upon his first appearance in the state, he was foremost in opposition to the crown; but finding his confederates had mixed a spirit of enthusiasm with their regard for liberty, he left their side to take that of the king's, which he fan-

ced in greatest danger. He was brave, wise, and loyal; and followed the king from principle, yet without entirely approving his conduct.

These were the resources of the crown to prepare for a Scotch war; but they were still insufficient, and there was but one method more to furnish larger supplies, namely, by calling a parliament. It was now eleven years since Charles had called any. The ungovernable spirit of the last had taught him to hate and to fear such an assembly. His wants, however, at length induced him to constrain his indignation, and by the advice of his council he called another, the members of which were still more turbulent than the former, as they now had still stronger reasons for their discontent. The house of commons could not be induced to treat the Scotch, who were of the same principles, and contended for the same cause, as their enemies. They looked upon them as friends and brothers, who only rose to teach them to defend their privileges. The king could reap no other fruits, therefore, from this assembly, but murmurings and complaints; every method he had taken to supply himself with money was declared an abuse: tonnage and poundage, ship-money, the sale of monopolies, the billeting of soldiers upon the citizens, were all voted stretches to arbitrary power. The Star-chamber gave particular offence, and, instead of subsidies, the house presented the king with nothing but grievances. Charles once more dissolved this parliament, and thus aggravated the discontents of the people.

He had now made enemies of the Scotch nation, and of the commons of England; it remained to offend the city of London. Upon their refusing to lend him a sum of money to carry on the war, he sued them in the Star-chamber for some lands in Ireland, and made them pay a considerable fine. He continued to exact all the taxes against which the parliament had so frequently remonstrated. Even had he been despotic, such a conduct would have shook him on the throne; but, limited as he was, it served to complete his overthrow. He could expect little assistance from England; and the Scotch, sensible of their own power in that part of his dominions, led an army of twenty thousand men as far as Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in

order to seize upon or to dethrone him. Having thus prepared his misfortunes, he found himself again obliged to call that parliament which completed his ruin.

Instead of granting money, this new parliament, as all the rest had done, began by demanding to have their grievances redressed: they desired an abolition of the Star-chamber; exclaimed against arbitrary taxes, and particularly ship-money; and, in fine, demanded that a new parliament should be called every three years. Charles was now obliged to grant those demands from necessity, which in the beginning of his reign he might have bestowed as a favour. He expected to regain his authority by complying, but he was deceived: nothing could satisfy the commons but the total abolition of his power. He expected that his English subjects would repress the insolence of those of Scotland, but had the mortification to find the house of commons approve their conduct, and repay their irruption with a reward of three hundred thousand pounds. He hoped to repress the puritanical party of England, but found, to his surprise, almost the whole house of commons of that persuasion. He loved the Earl of Strafford with tenderness, and esteemed his wisdom; and the house of commons, conscious of his regards, accused the earl of high treason. When we attempt innovation, we seldom know how far our schemes will extend at last. This parliament began with redressing grievances; they proceeded to reform the state, and ended in totally destroying the constitution.

I am, &c.

LETTER III. [VOL. II.]

[THE CONFLICT OF KING AND PARLIAMENT.]

IN treating of a subject in which almost every Englishman is partial, it is no easy matter to avoid falling into their errors: but I have laboured to view this part of our history without receiving any bias from party; and our constitution is now sufficiently established, whatever we

may think of this monarch's equity, or his subjects' resolution. Our laws, at present, differ both from what Charles endeavoured to maintain, and what his parliaments pretended to enact: we now are all agreed, that unlimited power arrogated on one side, and tumultuous freedom introduced on the other, are both intolerable; yet, of the two, perhaps despotism is superior. ¹ In a republic the number of tyrants are uncontrollable, for they can support each other in oppression; in a monarchy, there is one subject, who, if he offends, is easily punishable, because he is but one. The oppressions of a monarch are generally exerted only in the narrow sphere round him; the oppressions of the governors of a republic, though not so flagrant, are more universal: ¹ the monarch is apt to commit great enormities, but they seldom reach the multitude at humble distance from the throne: the republican despot oppresses the multitude that lies within the circle of his influence, for he knows them.² The monarch terrifies me with great evils which I may never feel; the despot actually loads me with submissions which I am constantly obliged to sustain; and, in my opinion, it is much better to be in danger of having my head chopped off with an axe once in my life, than to have my leg galled with a continual fetter.

Whatever were the reasonings of the king upon this subject, it is certain his actions were intended for the benefit of his subjects: but he continued to rule them upon the maxims of former princes, at a time when the principles of the subjects were totally changed. The house of commons seemed now to have thrown off all subordination: they not only arraigned and attainted almost all the king's ministers, particularly Laud, Strafford, Finch, and Windebanck, but passed an act to make that parliament

¹⁻¹ In the first edition this passage reads:—"In a republic, the tyrant is in our village, in our family; perhaps, in a monarchy, he lives at a distance: the oppressions of a monarch are generally exerted only in the narrow sphere round him; the oppressions of the governors of the republic, though not so flagrant are more universal." Compare *ante*, p. 310; also 'Citizen,' Letter L., and elsewhere, especially the concluding lines of the 'Traveller,'—some of which latter lines, however, are attributed to Dr. Johnson.—ED.

² The first edition has not "for he knows them."—ED.

continual, until all grievances should be redressed. The king complied with every measure ; yet all his compliance only served to increase their demands. The Earl of Strafford first fell a victim to their popular fury : the commons exhibited an accusation of twenty-eight articles against him ; the substance of which was, that he had attempted to extend the king's authority at home, and had been guilty of several exactions in Ireland. These received the name of high treason, and the people without demanded justice. The managers for the house of commons pleaded with vehemence against him at the bar of the house of lords, who were his judges : they insisted, that, though each article separately did not amount to a proof, yet the whole taken together carried conviction. This is a method of arguing frequently used in the English courts of justice even to this day ; and, perhaps none can be more erroneous ; for almost every falsehood may thus be defended by a multiplicity of weak reasons. In this tumult of aggravation and clamour the earl himself, whose parts and wisdom had long been respected and acknowledged, stood unmoved. He defended his innocence with all the presence of mind, judgment, and temper, that could be expected from innocence and ability. His little children were placed near him, as he was thus defending his own cause, and that of his master : after he had, in a long and eloquent speech, delivered extempore, confuted the accusation of his enemies, he thus drew to a conclusion : *But, my lords, I have troubled you too long ; longer than I should have done, but for the sake of those dear pledges a saint in heaven has left me.*—Upon this he paused, dropped a tear, looked upon his children, and then proceeded : *What I forfeit for myself is a trifle : that my indiscretions should reach my posterity, wounds me to the heart. Pardon my infirmity.*—*Something I should have added, but am not able ; therefore, let it pass.*—*And now, my lords, for myself, I have long been taught that the afflictions of this life are overpaid by that eternal weight of glory which awaits the innocent ; and so, my lords, even so, with the utmost tranquillity, I submit myself to your judgment. Whether that judgment be life or death, TE DEUM LAUDAMUS.* His eloquence and innocence seemed to influence his judges : the king himself went to the house of

lords, and spoke in his defence; but the spirit of the people was excited, and nothing but his blood would give them satisfaction. He was condemned by both houses, and nothing now remained but for the king to give his consent to the bill of attainder. But his consent seemed of little consequence: the limits of royalty were long since broken down, and imminent dangers might attend his refusal. While he continued in this agitation of mind, not knowing how to behave, he received a letter from the unfortunate nobleman himself, desiring that his life might be made the sacrifice of a mutual agreement between the king and the people; adding, that to a willing mind there could be no injury. This noble instance of generosity was but ill repaid: the king was persuaded to give his consent; he signed the fatal bill; Strafford was beheaded, and this taught his subjects soon after to spill blood that was still more precious.

The whole kingdom now seemed to be in a ferment: all the petitions of parliament, which were in reality calculated to abase the king, were notwithstanding drawn up with the most seeming affection and obedience; they were constantly complaining, in each of these, of their fears for the church, at the very time when they were themselves labouring its overthrow. Faction ran high. In the king's party, there was an ill-projected and worse conducted design of keeping the prerogative as much untouched as ever it had been in the reigns of the most fortunate and formidable monarchs; in the opposite party, a fixed resolution of turning the state into a republic, and changing the government of the church into that of presbytery.

In the midst of these troubles, the papists of Ireland fancied they found a convenient opportunity of throwing off the English yoke. Religion and liberty often inspire the most atrocious actions: and they did so now. The papists took a resolution, of which we find many horrid examples in history. They attempted to cut off all the protestants in that kingdom at one blow. Not less than forty thousand persons fell a sacrifice upon this occasion. In such a number of murders, cruelty put on a thousand different shapes; rapes, burnings, and tortures, were practised in every part of that miserable island; and all the

protestants perished who had not the good fortune to make early provision for their safety. Such was the state of Ireland then, and such was England shortly to be. The parliament took this opportunity to blacken the king, as if he had given sanction to the papists, and encouraged their barbarous design: he vindicated himself with a zeal that nothing but innocence could inspire; and tried every method of assisting his protestant subjects of Ireland. He even demanded succours from the parliament of Scotland to relieve the Irish protestants; but they remitted him to the parliament of England, as Ireland lay more immediately under their protection. The English house of commons sent but feeble succours to a people they pretended to deplore, and gave it as a pretext that the government at home was in danger.

The parliament now proceeded to what they long laboured at, to establish a republic, and destroy the rites of the church of England. They signified to the king, that it was fit to have a privy council only of their appointing. Three members of the house of commons presented this request on their knees. The king was pleased to grant all. Oliver Cromwell, who was then in the house of commons, was heard to declare, that, if this request was rejected, he would sell his estate, which was then but small, and retire out of the kingdom.

Hitherto, it is probable, both sides were actuated rather by principle than ambition. The bishops had hitherto adhered closely to the king; they were not only expelled the house of lords, but, upon remonstrating against this unconstitutional measure, were accused by the house of commons of high treason, and ten of them sent to the Tower. This spirit of epidemic rage was not confined to both houses of parliament alone: the populace daily surrounded the place of sitting, and, with tumultuous cries, demanded justice. The apprentices, the common council, and the citizens of London, were foremost in this struggle for liberty, as they thought it. However, their principles were sincere; for the motives of a mob, though often wrong, are always honest. In this contest, the presbyterians and Cardinal Richelieu of France were ever intriguing: both desired a civil war, the one

willing to depress the great, the other to humble the kingdom.

In this decline of the royal authority, the king was persuaded to take another step that was fatal to his interests. By the advice of Lord Digby, one of his ministers, he went himself to the house of commons, and accused five of its members of high treason. These were the leading members of the house, whom he thus ventured to call in question; namely, Lord Kimbolton, Mr. Hollis, Sir Arthur Haslerig, Mr. Pym, Mr. Hampden, and Mr. Strode. He sat, for some time, in the speaker's chair, to see if the accused were present; but they had escaped a few minutes before his entry, and the house of commons was resolved to support the cause. Disappointed, perplexed, not knowing whom to rely on, the king went next to the common council of the City, and made his complaint to them; the common council only answered by aggravating his former misconduct. From thence he went to Windsor, where, reflecting upon the rashness of his former proceeding, he wrote to the parliament, informing them, *that he desisted from his proceedings against the accused members, and assured the parliament that, upon all occasions, he would be as careful of their privileges as of his life, or of his crown.* His violence (as a fine writer remarks) had first rendered him hateful to his commons, and his submission now contemptible.

The commons had already stripped the king of almost all his privileges; the power of appointing governors, generals, and levying armies, still remained: they therefore proceeded to petition that the Tower might be put into their hands; that Hull, Portsmouth, and the fleet, should be commanded by persons of their choosing. These requests were at first contested, and then complied with. At last the commons desired to have a militia raised, and governed by such officers and commanders as they should nominate, under pretext of securing them from the Irish papists, whom they affected to be in dread of. This was depriving the king of even the shadow of his former power: but they had gone too far now to recede, and feared leaving him any power, as knowing themselves the first objects on which its vengeance might be exercised. He was willing

to grant the raising the militia, but insisted upon appointing his commanders. The parliament desired to command it for an appointed time ; but the king, at last provoked to resentment, cried, that they should not command it, *no not for an hour*. This peremptory refusal broke off all further treaty, and now both sides were resolved to have recourse to arms.

Charles retired to York, and the queen went over to Holland, to raise money upon the crown jewels, and provide ammunition and forces. The parliament, in the meantime, were not idle ; they knew their strength and popularity, and published proposals for bringing in money and plate for the defence of the kingdom. But though each side was prepared for war, yet they took every precaution to lay the blame of the first infraction of peace on each other. The king offered proposals to the commons, which he knew they would not accept ; and they, in return, offered him nineteen propositions, which, if complied with, would have rendered him entirely subservient to their commands. Their import was, that the privy council, the principal officers of state, the governors of the king's children, forts, castles, fleet, armies, should be all appointed or governed by parliament ; that papists should be punished by their authority ; that the church and liturgy should be reformed at their discretion ; and that such members as had been displaced for former offences should be restored. These proposals, which, if they had been accepted, would have moulded the government into an aristocratical form, were, happily for posterity, rejected ; and the king and his parliament continued to reproach each other for a civil war, of which both were actually guilty.

I am, &c.

LETTER IV. [VOL. II.].

[THE GREAT REBELLION.]

IN this detail of public calamities, you are not to expect any great strokes either in politics or war; each party was too sincere to give much attention to any thing but the dictates of passion, enthusiasm, or zeal. The parliament was convinced that it drew the sword in defence of liberty; and the king was equally steadfast in believing that he had the authority from Heaven for opposing their pretensions: they therefore took the field with little conduct, and courage alone in the troops generally decided the fortune of the day.

The parliament, from its own authority, constituted Sir John Hotham, a sitting member of the house of commons, governor of Hull. In this town there was a large magazine of arms, ammunition, and provisions. The king, sensible of the importance of the place, was desirous of securing it to himself; he therefore approached the gates with three hundred horse, and demanded entrance. Hotham still preserved some appearance of respect to his sovereignty, and on his knees refused to admit him. Disloyalty is ever timid in the beginning.

Manifestoes, on one side and the other, were now dispersed through the whole kingdom, and the people were universally divided into two factions, that went by the name of Royalists and Roundheads. The king ordered the nobility to attend his person; he procured the great seal from London, and erected his standard at Nottingham. The people in general seemed to have lost all respect to his person and government: the laws promulgated by parliament without the sanction of the great seal were observed with due obedience; and the royal standard was scarce followed by any, except a few militia. At length, however, with the succours furnished by the queen, and the presents of the university of Oxford, and his clergy, he raised an army of about fourteen thousand men, commanded by Prince Rupert, a man of courage and some ex-

perience. The parliament, which disposed of the money of the nation, had one still more numerous, commanded by the Earl of Essex, who fought from principle, and who only wished to bring the king to reason.

When the king advanced from Nottingham, and approached near Shrewsbury, he drew up his little army, and made them a speech: *I promise, said he to the soldiers, in the presence of Almighty God, and as I hope for his blessing and protection, that I will ever defend the protestant religion, and in that religion am resolved to live and die. The laws of the land, and the rights of my subjects, shall ever be the measure of my government; and, if Heaven prosper this little army, raised for their king's defence, I promise to rule by parliaments alone, and by every equitable administration. When I fail in these particulars, then let me be abandoned by men; and in this resolution I hope for the assistance of all good men, and am confident of the protection of Providence.*

Essex, on the other hand, was resolved to set up his headquarters at Worcester, and await the king, where, in a few days, a skirmish ensued in favour of the royalists: and the battle of Edge-hill, fought some time after, seemed to confirm the king's superiority. The queen had brought him soldiers from Holland, with ammunition and arms, and immediately departed, in order to furnish more. Yet the parliament was not discouraged; their demands seemed to increase in proportion to their losses; and, as they were defeated in the field, they grew more haughty in the cabinet. They condemned for high treason such governors of towns as gave up their fortresses to the king; while he, on the contrary, offered new terms of peace upon every advantage. But though his desire to spare his subjects was laudable, as a man, yet his long negotiations were faulty, as a warrior, and he wasted that in altercation and proposal, which should have been employed in vigorous exertions in the field. Upon the whole, his first campaign seemed to promise him success; his generals were mostly victorious, and his army far superior to the enemy in point of discipline. On the side of the parliament, the great Hampden was slain in the battle of Chaldgrave-field; and on the other hand, on the king's part, the gallant Lord

Faulkland was killed at the battle of Newbury. These were the two greatest, bravest, and wisest men of their time, who thus fell, as if, by the kindness of Providence, to prevent their seeing the miseries and the slaughter in which their country was shortly to be involved.

Hampden was the person who had refused paying ship-money, and withstood the power of the crown: his inflexible integrity gained him the esteem even of his enemies; and his humanity and benevolence, the affection of all who knew him more intimately.

But Faulkland was still a greater character than he. He added to Hampden's severe principles all the politeness and elegance then known in Europe. He had withstood the king, while he saw him making an ill use of his power: but when he perceived the design of the parliament to change religion, he changed his side, and stedfastly attached himself to the crown. From the beginning of the civil war, his natural cheerfulness and vivacity grew clouded, and he became sad, pale, and negligent of his person. The morning of the battle, it was seen he desired to die, and he professed that the miseries of his country had already almost broken his heart. He added, that he was weary of the times, and should leave them before night. He was shot with a musket, in the belly, and his body was the next morning found among a heap of slain. His writings, his justice, and his courage, deserved such a death of glory; and they found it. If there be happiness in death, it must be in such an end, falling in battle for our king and principles.¹

Each battle served only to weaken the royal party, and to unite the parliament more strongly together: the king and his followers were held together only by secular motives; the parliament had long been actuated by one still stronger, that of religion: this had hitherto been the secret spring of all their commotions, and now they fairly threw by the mask, united themselves to the church of Scotland, and signed the solemn league and covenant which established puritanism, and laid the foundation of a new republic. The king, to oppose the designs of the

¹ Compare with the account of the Royalists in the 'Sequel' to the 'Poetical Scale,' vol. iv., 425.—ED.

Westminster parliament, called one at Oxford, where it assembled; and England now saw, what it had never before seen, two parliaments sitting at one and the same time. From this partial parliament he received some supplies; after which it was prorogued, and never after convened. The war went on with its usual fury, and skirmishes on both sides were frequent, which served to desolate the kingdom without deciding victory. Each county joined that side to which it was addicted from motives of conviction, interest, or fear; while some observed a perfect neutrality. Several frequently petitioned for peace; the wise and the good were most earnest in this cry: but what particularly deserved remark was, the attempt of the women of London, who, to the number of two or three thousand, went in a body to the house of commons, earnestly demanding a peace: *Give us those traitors*, said they, *that are against peace: give them, that we may tear them in pieces.* The guards found some difficulty in quelling this insurrection, and one or two women lost their lives in the fray.

It is both tedious and unimproving to describe all the combats, the battles, the skirmishes, that every day passed on either side; what towns were besieged and taken, how many killed in fight, or what numbers died by the hands of the executioner; every civil war presents the same picture to the imagination; and this was aggravated with all the miseries of rage, resentment, and despair. All were from principle earnestly employed in destroying the constitution. There were few of those refined understandings, who, disengaged from the prejudices of party, improved the universal prejudice of the time to acquire dominion for themselves; all were seriously, earnestly, and blindly engaged in the favourite pursuit. The genius of the times was great, but irregular.

Among the number who most severely felt the indignation of the commons, was the famous William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. He had been imprisoned in the Tower at the time when nine more of the bishops were sent there for remonstrating to the lords against the severity of the lower house. When he was brought to the bar, in order to make his defence, he spoke several hours

with that courage which is the result of innocence and integrity. The lords, his judges, were willing to acquit him ; but the commons were determined upon his death, and overruled all remonstrances made in his favour. When brought to the scaffold, this noble divine, without any apparent terror, made the people a long speech. He told them, " That he had examined his heart, and thanked God that he found no sins there which deserved the death he was going to suffer. The king had been traduced by some, as labouring to introduce popery ; but he believed him as sound a protestant as any man in the kingdom : and as for parliaments, though he disliked the conduct of one or two, yet he never designed to change the laws of the country, or the protestant religion." After he had prayed for a short space, the executioner did his office at one blow. This man seemed born to a better fate and better times ; but all distinctions of right and wrong were now lost in mutual animosity ; and in general the best characters on both sides were those who fell victims to civil fury. He was learned, upright, and sincere ; humble in his private deportment, but attached to trifling ceremonies, and ready to lose his life rather than give them up.

The liturgy was, by a public act, abolished the day he died, as if he had been the only obstacle to its former removal. The church of England was rendered completely presbyterian, to the great satisfaction of the Scots, and numbers of the citizens of London. An ordinance was established, by which there should be one day in every week appointed as a fast, and the money which was thus spared to the family, was to be paid in support of the common cause. Thus strengthened, the parliament seemed capable of carrying on their designs in an arbitrary manner ; they had the Scots to assist them ; they professed only one religion, and were united by the bonds of mutual danger. However, from the moment they came all to be ranked under the denomination of presbyterians, they again began to separate into new parties, as if divisions were necessary to the existence of this parliament : one part of the house were presbyterians, strictly so called ; the other independents, a new sect that had lately been introduced, and gained ground surprisingly. The difference between these

two sects would hardly be worth mentioning, did not their religious opinions influence their political conduct. The church of England, which was now totally abolished, had appointed bishops and a book of common prayer; the presbyterians exclaimed against both: they were for having the church governed by clergymen elected by the people. The independents went still further, and excluded all clergy: they maintained that every man might pray in public, exhorting his audience, and explain the scriptures: but their chief difference lay in acknowledging no subordination in secular employments, and attempting to maintain an ideal equality, in which they justly observed that every man was born. Were such plan of government practicable, it would no doubt be the most happy: but the wise and powerful must ever govern over ignorance and debility: and the bad success of their schemes, soon after carried into execution, showed how ill adapted they were to human infirmity. Possessed, however, with a high opinion of their speculative schemes, they behaved with that morose and sullen carriage, which is ever the result of narrow manners and solitary thinking. They secretly laboured the abasement of the presbyterians, yet joined them in their efforts to depress the king.

Charles, now perceiving the parliaments of England and Scotland united against him, and fearing to fall under their united efforts, thought proper to make a truce with the papists of Ireland, in order to bring over the English troops who served in that kingdom. By this means he not only had many of the English troops that served there, but also several of the native Irish, who came to increase his army. It was then the parliament complained with truth of his employing papists in his service, and still further extended their reproach, by saying that he encouraged them to rebel. These troops, however, only served to procure the hatred of his subjects without strengthening his army. They were totally routed by Fairfax, one of the generals of the parliament army, and slaughtered without mercy after submission. It was said that several Irish women were found among the slain, who, with long knives, did considerable execution; but the animosity of the English against those wretches, at that time, might have given rise to the calumny.

One misfortune now seemed to follow close upon another; Prince Rupert, who had long sustained the honour of the royal arms, was defeated at York, and his army dispersed by Fairfax. Charles had retired to Oxford: his present danger excited his friends to new efforts: he levied new forces, and had some slight success. But this appearance of good fortune did not continue. His army was turbulent and seditious; that of the parliament every day improved in discipline, and obeyed from principle. Among other instances of this nature was that act called the *self-denying ordinance*, by which it was resolved, that no member of the house of commons should have a command in the army. The reasons assigned for this were specious, and perhaps sincere. It was done to prevent the parliament wishing for the continuance of the war, in order to enjoy a continuing share of authority. The former generals were therefore changed; the Earls of Essex, Denbigh, and Manchester, gave up their commissions; and Fairfax, with the assistance of Cromwell, new-modelled the army without any opposition.

It was the general opinion, that this new alteration would enfeeble the parliament army: but the event proved otherwise; they were, after this, every where victorious. Both armies met near Naseby. The king, who commanded the main body of his own troops, showed himself upon this occasion a courageous general, encouraging his soldiers where giving way, and rallying them in person when broken. The enemy, however, was victorious: wherever Cromwell fought, he brought conquest and terror, and the defeat of the royal army was principally owing to him. This fatal blow the king could never after recover. All his infantry were so scattered, that the enemy took as many prisoners as they pleased; his baggage, and the cabinet in which his most secret papers were contained, fell into the hands of his pursuers; and yet, after all, there were not above six hundred men slain upon the field of battle.

It was about this time that Cromwell's courage and genius began to appear. He had hitherto been only a turbulent speaker in the house of commons, and the leader of a regiment in the army; but he now discovered talents greater than his employments, and his present success

opened to him the prospects of ambition which he never after lost sight of. Historians seldom distinguish properly in the changes to be found in the same character. It is probable Cromwell began to act in the state with principles of conviction and sincerity; but new occurrences arising, his soul was not proof to the allurements of fortune; he gave way to her seducing call. Had he been on the oppressed side, he might have displayed surprising instances of constancy and integrity; but, happening to be victorious, he became a tyrant and usurper, and bathed his country with royal blood.

Cromwell was possessed of apparent humility and internal pride. This is just the character which Machiavel describes for a successful usurper. He was originally the son of a private gentleman of a moderate fortune, who had some years before attempted leaving the kingdom upon a principle of religion, but was prevented by the king. This religious deportment Cromwell ever inviolably preserved; it secured him an ascendancy in the house of commons, where the majority were enthusiasts; it gained him the affections of Fairfax the general, who was courageous, ignorant, and sincere; it acquired him the love of the army, where his presence was coveted; and he alone was permitted to unite the military and civil employments in his person: for he had a seat in the house while he was a colonel in the field. But he was still resolved further to strengthen his interests by attaching the independents privately to his side; they increased in numbers and power by his means, and he, in return, found them resolute and persevering friends.

The battle of Naseby seemed fatal to the interests of the king; and Fairfax and Cromwell availed themselves of the circumstances that offered.¹ Every city that they appeared before capitulated. The young prince of Wales, afterwards Charles II., participated in the misfortunes of his father, and fled to the island of Scilly. The king drew the shattered remains of his army into Oxford, and once more demanded peace; but if he could not obtain it in the pros-

¹ For a curious error of our author as to the battle of Naseby, contained in Goldsmith's larger 'History of England,' 1771, see the Appendix to the Prefaces, *ante*, pp. 176-179.—ED.

perous state of his affairs, it was not likely that he could now succeed in his desires after a defeat. The house of commons insulted his misfortunes. His letters to the queen were published with those ill-natured remarks and railleries which none but the vicious are capable of making. To be at once merry and malicious is the sign of a corrupt heart and understanding.

The king, after having taken every measure that he thought could procure peace, without effect, now saw himself shut up in Oxford; a place almost without any fortifications, and every day in danger of falling into the power of a fierce and exasperated party. In such a situation he therefore was obliged to choose the least of two evils, and to deliver himself up to the Scots army, rather than the English, as he expected to find less animosity in the former. The Scots officers had made him some general promises, grounded probably upon the hopes of his compliance with every request they should make. He sent them word of his intention to come to their army; and they promised to receive him, and provide for his safety. Upon this precarious assurance the king left Oxford, and, travelling through by-ways, and obscure places, arrived at the Scots army in nine days. From that moment he ceased to be free. The Scots began to negotiate with the English army, carried their royal prisoner about from one place to another, and, at length, upon consideration of being paid the arrears due for their service in England, which amounted to two hundred thousand pounds, they delivered up their king, and returned home laden with the reproaches of all good men, and the internal conviction of their own baseness. From this period to the usurpation of Cromwell, the constitution was convulsed with all the distractions of guilt and party. When the kingly power was abolished, the parliament then took up the authority; but they were soon to lay it down in turn, and submit to a military democracy; a new form of government, which, like all other democracies, was turbulent, feeble, and bloody.

I am, &c.

LETTER VIII. [VOL. II.]

[CHARLES II.]

It will, undoubtedly, astonish posterity, when they find a whole nation making these sudden changes, from absolute liberty to the most submissive obedience; at one time almost unanimously declaring against monarchy, and soon after, with the most unbounded flattery, soliciting the shackles of arbitrary power. The parliament, which had before so vehemently opposed the late monarch, possessed of every virtue, were now profuse in their submission to his successor, whose character stood in no competition with that of his father.

* * * * *

It was now feared that the title of royalty¹ would bear down all the former mounds of freedom; the parliament seemed to concur in all the designs of the court, and even to anticipate its wishes. But though the king was established, his old faithful friends, and the followers of his family, were left unrewarded. There were numbers, who had fought for his father, and for him, and had lost their all in his service, still pining in want and misery; while their persecutors, who, profiting by the troubles of their country, had acquired fortunes during the civil war, were still permitted to enjoy them without molestation. The sufferers petitioned in vain; Charles was no way remarkable for gratitude; his pleasures, his flatterers, and concubines, engrossed all his attention, and exhausted his finances: the unhappy cavaliers murmured without redress; he fled from their gloomy expostulations to scenes of mirth, riot, and festivity.

The kingdom now seemed to be converted into a theatre of debauchery, which had before been a scene of blood. The independents were no longer to be seen; the puritans were restrained, the horrors of the late war were the subject of ridicule; the formality and the ignorance of sec-

¹ The first edition has "tide of royalty."—ED.

taries were displayed upon the stage, and even laughed at in the pulpit. The king had no religion : and though he permitted the persecution of sectaries, it was merely from political motives.

* * * * *

His prodigality, his libertinism, and the familiarity with which he permitted himself to be treated by his subjects, soon began to alter their sentiments, from a veneration for royalty to a contempt of his person and administration.

* * * * *

Natural and accidental calamities seemed to unite themselves to those brought on by bad management. A plague ravaged London, which swept away more than one hundred thousand of its inhabitants ; and, soon after, the city was almost entirely destroyed by a conflagration, which raged for three days without intermission. The spirit of the people surmounted these calamities : London soon rose more beautiful from its ashes : the streets were built anew, more spacious and convenient than before ; and their distress soon became their advantage.

* * * * *

The severities exercised in the latter part of this reign arose merely from the influence of the Duke of York, who was as much inclined to cruelty by nature, as his brother Charles was prone to forgiveness. His authority was become terrible even to the ministry : by his advice the king seized upon all the charters of the corporations, in order to extort money for having them renewed. Partiality and oppression were the instruments of his power, and bigotry and innovation the objects of his wish. At this period the reign of Charles was as absolute as that of any monarch in Christendom, and new discontents and treasons were secretly diffusing their poison, while the spirit of liberty still struggled hard against the spirit of obedience, which the clergy attempted to inculcate. Another civil war threatened the nation, still more dreadful than the former, as the forces were more equally divided : but Charles happily died before those calamities could return ; he was suddenly seized with an apoplectic fit, in the fifty-fourth

year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign. The people, though they despised his administration, loved his person; they were willing to bear with the faults of one, whose whole behaviour was a continual instance of good-nature and affability; but they were by no means willing to grant the same indulgence to his successor, whom they hated for his pride, his religion, his cruelty, and connections. He was unfit to walk in the irregular steps of his predecessor, and, when he pursued the same route, fatal experience soon convinced him that he had at once mistaken himself and the people he attempted to command.

But, though England, during the reign of Charles, seemed, in some measure, agitated like the ocean after a storm, yet commerce continued to increase with its usual celerity and success. The manufacture of certain stuffs, glass, copper, steel, paper, hats, and stockings, was now brought to perfection. Upon the banishing of the protestants from France, numbers came and settled here, and brought their arts with them. This application to arts and commerce gave England great weight in the balance of Europe: Britain became the centre of politics and arms. Though literature was but little encouraged by the sovereign, yet the learned made great proficiency in every department of science; and the philosophers of England began to take the lead. Newton, Tillotson, Burnet, Hobbes,¹ and Shaftesbury, enlarged the landmarks of human knowledge: Butler, Dryden, Otway, gave strength and propriety to the language. In a word, the character of the nation now began to alter; the natural rudeness of the inhabitants began to take a polish from good breeding, and British ferocity to meliorate into social happiness.²

I am, &c.

¹ For "Hobbes and Shaftesbury" some editions published since Goldsmith's time substituted "Barrow and Boyle." Goldsmith pits Barrow with Tillotson, somewhat to the former's disadvantage, in the 'Augustan Age' essay; see vol. ii., p. 447. Shaftesbury is again mentioned at p. 344; and he also is noticed in the 'Augustan Age' article, p. 448, vol. ii.—ED.

² The first edition has "into character and humanity."—ED.

LETTER X. [VOL. II.]

[WILLIAM III.]

THOUGH William was chosen king of England, his power was limited on every side; and the opposition he met with from his parliaments still lessened his authority. His sway in Holland, where he was but the stadtholder, was far more arbitrary: so that he might, with greater propriety, have been called the king of the United Provinces, and the stadtholder of England. He was not sufficiently acquainted with the difficulty of governing the nation by which he was elected: he expected in them a people ready to second the views of his ambition in humbling France; but he found them more apt to fear for the invasion of their domestic liberties from himself.

His reign commenced, however, with the same attempt which had been the principal cause of all the disturbances in the preceding reign, and had excluded the monarch from the throne. William was a Calvinist, and naturally averse to persecution. He, therefore, began by attempting to repeal those laws that enjoined uniformity of worship; and though he could not entirely succeed in his design, yet a toleration was granted to such dissenters as should take the oaths of allegiance, and hold no private conventicles. The papists also enjoyed the lenity of his government: and though the laws against them continued to subsist, yet they were seldom put into rigorous execution. What was criminal in James was virtuous in his successor: James only wanted to introduce persecution, by pretending to disown it; William was averse to persecution from principle, and none suffered for religious opinions during his reign.

But, though William was acknowledged in England, Scotland was still undetermined. The parliament of that country, however, soon recognized his authority, and took that opportunity to abolish episcopacy, which had been long disagreeable to the nation. Nothing now remained to the deposed monarch, of all his former dominions, but

Ireland. His cause was espoused by all the catholics of that country, who were much more numerous there than those of the protestant persuasion. The king of France, either touched with compassion for his sufferings, or willing to weaken a rival kingdom by promoting its internal dissensions, granted James a fleet and some troops to assert his claims there. On the seventh day of May, this unhappy monarch embarked at Brest, and on the twenty-second arrived at Kinsale. He was received by the catholics of Ireland with open arms. The protestants, who were unanimously attached to king William, had been previously disarmed by Tyrconnel, their lord-lieutenant, and a papist. James made his public entry into Dublin amid the acclamations of the inhabitants. He was met by a popish procession, bearing the host, which he publicly adored; and this served to alienate the few protestants of that kingdom who still adhered to his cause. A small party of that religion were resolved to defend their lives and liberties in the little city of Londonderry. They were besieged by the forces of king James, and suffered all the complicated miseries of war, famine, and bigotted cruelty: but, determined never to yield, they rejected capitulation, and always repulsed the besiegers with considerable loss. At length, supplies and succours arriving from England, king James's army thought proper to raise the siege.¹

The cruelties exercised upon the protestants were as shocking as unnecessary; soldiers were permitted to pillage them without redress, and they were compelled to accept base money in exchange for those commodities they were forced to sell. But their sufferings were soon to have a period. The Duke of Schomberg was sent over with assistance; and William himself soon after followed, and landed at Carrickfergus. He was met by numbers of the protestants, who had fled from persecution; and now, at the head of six and thirty thousand men, he was resolved to go in quest of the enemy. Having marched to Dundalk, and then to Ardee, he at length came in sight of the Irish army. The river Boyne lay between the two armies, the

¹ See a note on Goldsmith's account of this siege in his larger and later published 'History of England' in the Appendix to the Prefaces, *ante*, p. 176.—ED.

front of the Irish being secured by a morass and a rising ground. These obstacles were insufficient to prevent the ardour of William, who, when his friend the Duke of Schomberg expostulated upon the danger, boldly replied that a tardy victory would be worse than a defeat. The duke, finding his advice not relished, retired to his tent in a melancholy manner, as if he had a prescience of his own misfortune. Early in the morning, at six, king William gave orders to pass the river: the army passed in three different places, and the battle began with unusual vigour. The Irish troops, which have been reckoned the best in Europe abroad, have always fought indifferently at home; they fled, after a long resistance, with precipitation, and left the French and Swiss regiments, who came to their assistance, to make the best retreat they could. William led on his horse in person, and contributed by his activity and vigilance to secure the victory. James was not in the battle, but stood aloof, during the action, on the hill of Dunmore, surrounded with some squadrons of horse; and, at intervals, was heard to exclaim, when he saw his own troops repulsing the enemy, *O spare my English subjects!* The Irish lost about fifteen hundred men, and the English about one-third of that number: but the death of the Duke of Schomberg, who was shot as he was crossing the water, seemed to outweigh all the numbers of the enemy. He had been long a soldier of fortune, and fought under almost every power in Europe. His skill in war was unparalleled, and his fidelity equal to his courage. The number of battles in which he had been personally engaged was said to equal the number of his years, and he died aged eighty-two. James fled, regardless of the safety of his soldiers. William rode round the scene of slaughter, relieving the wounded, as well of the enemy's troops as his own. O'Regan, an old Irish captain, was heard to say, upon this occasion, If the English would exchange generals, the conquered army would fight the battle over again.

This blow totally depressed the hopes of James: he fled to Dublin, advised the magistrates to get the best terms they could from the victor, then set out for Waterford, where he embarked for France, in a vessel prepared for his reception. Had he possessed either conduct or courage,

he might still have headed his troops, and fought with advantage; but prudence forsook him with good fortune.

His friends were still resolved to second his interests, though he had abandoned them himself. After his retreat, another desperate battle was fought at Aughrim, in which his adversaries were again victorious. Limerick, a strong city in the southern part of the kingdom, still held out in his favour. The city was besieged, and made a brave defence; but, despairing of the king's fortunes, the garrison at length capitulated. The Roman catholics, by this capitulation, were restored to the enjoyment of such liberty in the exercises of their religion as they had possessed in the reign of Charles II., and about fourteen thousand of those who had fought in favour of king James had permission to go over to France, and transports were provided for their reception.

The conquest of Ireland being thus completed, the only hopes of the fugitive king now depended on the assistance of Louis XIV. who promised to make a descent upon England in his favour. The French king was punctual; he supplied the fugitive monarch with an army consisting of a body of French troops, some English and Scotch refugees, and the Irish regiments which had been transported from England into France, by long discipline now become excellent soldiers. This army was assembled between Cherbourg and La Hogue: king James commanded it in person; and more than three hundred transports were provided for landing it on the English shore. Tourville, the French admiral, at the head of sixty-three ships of the line, was appointed to favour the descent, and had orders to attack the enemy, if they should attempt to oppose him. All things conspired to revive the hopes of the hitherto unfortunate king. These preparations on the side of France were soon known at the court of England, and precautions were taken for vigorous opposition: all the secret machinations of the banished king's adherents were early discovered to the English ministry by spies, and they took proper measures to defeat them. Admiral Russel was ordered to put to sea with all possible expedition; and he soon appeared with ninety-nine ships of the line besides frigates and fire-ships. Both fleets met at La Hogue.

On the success of this engagement all the hopes of James depended: but the victory was on the side of the English, and of numbers. The combat continued ten hours, and the pursuit two days. Fifteen French men of war were destroyed; and the blow was so decisive, that from that time France seemed to relinquish her claims to the ocean.

James was now reduced to the lowest ebb of despondence: his designs upon England were quite frustrated: nothing was now left his friends but terrors and despair, or the hopes of assassinating the monarch on the throne. These base attempts, as barbarous as they were useless, were not entirely disagreeable to the temper of James: it is said, he encouraged and proposed them; but they all ended in the destruction of their undertakers. He passed the remainder of his days at St. Germain; a pensioner on the bounties of Louis, and assisted by occasional liberalities from his daughter, and friends in England. He died in 1700, at St. Germain. Some pretend that miracles were wrought at his tomb. We have seen few deposed kings that have not died with reputation for sanctity.

The defeat at La Hogue confirmed king William's safety and title to the crown; the Jacobites were now a feeble and disunited faction: new parties therefore arose among those who had been friends of the revolution, and William found as much opposition from his parliament at home as from the enemy in the field. His chief motive for accepting the crown was to engage England more deeply in the concerns of Europe. It had ever been his ambition to humble the French, whom he considered as the most formidable enemies of that liberty which he idolized; and all his politics lay in making alliances against them. Many of the English, on the other hand, had neither the same animosity against the French, nor the same terrors of their increasing power; they therefore considered the interests of the nation as sacrificed to foreign connections, and complained, that the war on the continent fell most heavily on them, though they had the least interest in its success. To these motives of discontent was added his partiality to his own countrymen, in prejudice of his English subjects, together with his proud reserve and sullen silence, so unlike the behaviour of all their former kings. William heard their complaints

with the most phlegmatic indifference; the interest of Europe alone employed all his attention: but while he incessantly watched over the schemes of contending kings and nations, he was unmindful of the cultivation of internal polity. Patriotism was ridiculed as an ideal virtue; the practice of bribing a majority in parliament became universal. The example of the great was caught by the vulgar; all principle, and even decency, was gradually banished; talents lay uncultivated; and the ignorant and profligate were received into favour.

William, upon accepting the crown, was resolved to preserve, as much as he was able, the privileges of a sovereign. He was, as yet, entirely unacquainted with the nature of a limited monarchy, which was not then thoroughly understood in any part of Europe, except in England alone; he therefore often controverted the views of his parliament, and was directed by arbitrary councils. One of the first instances of this was in the opposition he gave to the bill for triennial parliaments: it had passed the two houses, and was sent up to receive the royal assent, which William refused to grant: the commons then voted, that whoever advised the king to this measure was an enemy to his country. The bill, thus rejected, lay dormant till another session; and, being again brought in, the king found himself obliged, though reluctantly, to comply. The same opposition, and the same success, attended a bill for regulating trials in cases of high treason, by which the accused was allowed a copy of his indictment, and a list of the names of his jury, two days before his trial, together with counsel to plead in his defence; that no person should be indicted, but upon the oaths of two faithful witnesses. This was one of the most salutary laws that had been long enacted: but while penal statutes were mitigated on one hand, they were strangely increased by a number of others.

The great business of the parliament, from this period, seemed to consist in restraining corruption, and bringing such to justice as had grown wealthy from the plunder of the public. The number of laws that were now enacted every session seemed calculated for the safety of the subject; but, in reality, were symptoms of the universal cor-

ruption. The more corrupt the commonwealth, the more numerous are the laws.¹

William was willing to admit all the restraints they chose to lay on the royal prerogative in England, upon condition of being properly supplied with the means of humbling the power of France. War and foreign politics were all he knew, or desired to understand. The sums of money granted him for the prosecution of this war were incredible; and the nation, not contented with furnishing him with such supplies as they were immediately capable of raising, involved themselves in debts, which they have never since been able to discharge. For all this profusion, England received, in return, the empty reward of military glory in Flanders, and the consciousness of having given the Dutch, whom they saved, frequent opportunities of being ungrateful.

The treaty of Ryswick, at length, put an end to a war, in which England had engaged without interest, and come off without advantage. In the general pacification, for her blood and treasure, the only equivalent she received, was the king of France's acknowledgment of king William's title to the crown.

The king, now freed from a foreign war, laid himself out to strengthen his authority at home. He conceived hopes of keeping up the forces that were granted him in time of war during the continuance of the peace; but he was not a little mortified to find that the commons had passed a vote, that all the forces in English pay exceeding seven thousand men should be forthwith disbanded; and that those retained should be natural English subjects. A standing army was this monarch's greatest delight: he had been bred up in camps, and knew no other pleasure but that of reviewing troops, or dictating to generals. He professed himself therefore displeased with the proposal; and his indignation was kindled to such a pitch, that he actually conceived a design of abandoning the government. His ministers, however, diverted him from this resolution, and persuaded him to consent to passing the bill. Such were the altercations between the king and his parliament; which continued during his reign. He considered his commons

¹ This aphorism also appears in the 'Bee' (vol. ii. p. 428), and elsewhere in Goldsmith's writings.—ED.

as a set of men desirous of power, and consequently resolved upon obstructing all his projects. He seemed but little attached to any party in the house: he veered from whigs to tories, as interest, or immediate exigence, demanded. England he considered as a place of labour, anxiety, and altercation. He used to retire to his seat at Loo, in Holland, for those moments which he dedicated to pleasure or tranquillity. It was in this quiet retreat he planned the different successions of Europe, and laboured to undermine the politics of Louis XIV., his insidious rival in power and in fame. Against France his resentment was ever levelled; and he had made vigorous preparations for entering into a new war with that kingdom, when death interrupted the execution of his schemes. He was naturally of a very feeble constitution, and it was now almost exhausted by a life of continual action and care. He endeavoured to conceal the increase of his infirmities, and repair his health by riding. In one of his excursions to Hampton-court, his horse fell under him, and he himself was thrown off with such violence that his collar-bone was fractured. This, in a robust constitution, would have been a trifling misfortune, but to him it was fatal. Perceiving his end approach, the objects of his former care still lay next his heart; the interests of Europe still filled him with concern. The Earl of Albemarle arriving from Holland, he conferred with him in private on the posture of affairs abroad. Two days after, having received the sacrament from Archbishop Tennison, he expired, in the fifty-second year of his age, after having reigned thirteen years.

William left behind him the character of a great politician, though he had never been popular; and a formidable general, though he was seldom victorious. His deportment was grave and sullen, nor did he show any fire but in the day of battle. He despised flattery, yet loved dominion. Greater as the general of Holland, than the king of England; to one he was a father, to the other a suspicious friend. He scrupled not to employ the engines of corruption to gain his ends; and while he increased the power of the nation he was brought to govern, he contributed, in some measure, to corrupt their morals.

I am, &c.

LETTER XVI. [VOL. II.]

[LITERATURE IN THE REIGN OF GEORGE I.]

I HAVE not hitherto said any thing of the literature of the present period, having resolved to refer it to a separate letter, in which we may have a more perspicuous view of it than if blended with the ordinary occurrences of the state. Though learning had never received fewer encouragements than in the present reign, yet it never flourished more. That spirit of philosophy which had been excited in former ages, still continued to operate with the greatest success, and produce the greatest men in every profession. Among the divines, Atterbury and Clarke distinguished themselves. As a preacher, Atterbury united all the graces of style with all the elegance of a just delivery: he was natural, polite, spirited; and his sermons may be ranked among the first of this period. Clarke, on the other hand, despising the graces of eloquence, only sought after conviction, with rigorous though phlegmatic exactness, and brought moral truths almost to mathematical precision. Yet neither he, Cudworth, nor any other divine, did such service to the reasoning world, as the great Mr. John Locke, who may be justly said to have reformed all our modes of thinking in metaphysical inquiry. Though the jargon of schools had been before him arraigned, yet several of their errors had still subsisted, and were regarded as true. Locke, therefore, set himself to overturn their systems, and refute their absurdities: these he effectually accomplished; for which reason his book, which, when published, was of infinite service, may be found less useful at present, when the doctrines it was calculated to refute are no longer subsisting.

Among the moral writers of this period, the Earl of Shaftesbury is not to be passed over, whose elegance, in some measure recompenses for his want of solidity. The opinions of all latter writers upon moral subjects are only derived from the ancients. Morals are a subject on which

the industry of man has been exercised in every age ; and an infinite number of systems has been the result. That of Shaftesbury, in which he establishes a natural sense of moral beauty, was originally professed by Plato, and only adorned by the English philosopher.¹

This seemed to be the age of speculation. Berkeley, afterward Bishop of Cloyne, in Ireland, surpassed all his contemporaries in subtlety of disquisition ; but the mere efforts of reason which are exerted rather to raise doubt than procure certainty will never meet with much favour from so vain a being as man.

Lord Bolingbroke had also some reputation for metaphysical inquiry : his friends extolled his sagacity on that head, and the public were willing enough to acquiesce in their opinion : his fame therefore might have continued to rise, or, at least, would have never sunk, if he had never published. His works have appeared, and the public are no longer in their former sentiments.

In mathematics and natural philosophy, the vein opened by Newton was prosecuted with success : Doctor Halley illustrated the theory of the tides, and increased the catalogue of the stars ; while Gregory reduced astronomy to one comprehensive and regular system.

Doctor Freind, in medicine, produced some ingenious theories, which, if they did not improve the art, at least showed his abilities and learning in his profession. Doctor Mead was equally elegant, and more successful ; to him is owing the useful improvement of tapping in the dropsy, by means of a swathe.²

But, of all the other arts, poetry in this age was carried to the greatest perfection. The language, for some ages, had been improving, but now seemed entirely divested of its roughness and barbarity. Among the poets of this period we may place John Phillips, author of several poems, but of none more admired than that humorous one, entitled "The Splendid Shilling:" he lived in obscurity, and died just above want. William Congreve deserves also

¹ This paragraph is omitted from the later editions. It seems to have been cut out at the same time that "Barrow and Boyle" were substituted for "Hobbes and Shaftesbury," as noted at p. 334.—ED.

² The first edition reads—"at once by means of a swathe."—ED.

particular notice : his comedies, some of which were but coolly received upon their first appearance, seemed to mend upon repetition ; and he is, at present, justly allowed the foremost in that species of dramatic poesy : his wit is ever just and brilliant ; his sentiments new and lively ; and his elegance equal to his regularity. Next him Vanburg is placed, whose humour seems more natural, and characters more new ; but he owes too many obligations to the French entirely to pass for an original ; and his total disregard of decency, in a great measure, impairs his merit. Farquhar is still more lively, and, perhaps, more entertaining than either : his pieces continue the favourite performances of the stage, and bear frequent repetition without satiety ; but he often mistakes pertness for wit, and seldom strikes his characters with proper force or originality. However, he died very young ; and it is remarkable, that he continued to improve as he grew older ; his last play, entitled “The Beaux’ Stratagem,” being the best of his productions. Addison, both as a poet and prose writer, deserves the highest regard and imitation. His Campaign, and Letter to Lord Halifax from Italy, are master-pieces in the former, and his essays published in the Spectator are inimitable specimens of the latter. Whatever he treated of was handled with elegance and precision ; and that virtue, which was taught in his writings was enforced by his example. Steele was Addison’s friend and admirer : his comedies are perfectly polite, chaste, and genteel ; nor were his other works contemptible ; he wrote on several subjects, and yet it is amazing, in the multiplicity of his pursuits, how he found leisure for the discussion of any ; ever persecuted by creditors, whom his profuseness drew upon him, or pursuing impracticable schemes, suggested by ill-grounded ambition. Dean Swift was the professed antagonist of both Addison and him. He perceived that there was a spirit of romance mixed with all the works of the poets who preceded him ; or, in other words, that they had drawn nature on the most pleasing side. There still, therefore, was a place left for him, who, careless of censure, should describe it just as it was, with all its deformities ; he therefore owes much of his fame, not so much to the greatness of his genius, as to the boldness of it. He was

dry, sarcastic, and severe ; and suited his style exactly to the turn of his thought, being concise and nervous. In this period also flourished many of subordinate fame. Prior was the first who adopted the French elegant easy manner of telling a story ; but if what he has borrowed from that nation be taken from him, scarce any thing will be left upon which he can lay claim to applause in poetry. Rowe was only outdone by Shakspeare and Otway as a tragic writer : he has fewer absurdities than either, and is, perhaps, as pathetic as they ; but his flights are not so bold, nor his characters so strongly marked. Perhaps his coming later than the rest may have contributed to lessen the esteem he deserves. Garth had success as a poet ; and for a time, his fame was even greater than his desert. In his principal work, "The Dispensary," his versification is negligent, and his plot is now become tedious ; but whatever he may lose as a poet, it would be improper to rob him of the merit he deserves for having written the prose dedication and preface to the poem already mentioned, in which he has shown the truest wit, with the most refined elegance. Parnell, though he has written but one poem, namely, "The Hermit," yet has found a place among the English first-rate poets. Gay, likewise, by his Fables and Pastorals, has acquired an equal reputation. But of all who have added to the stock of English poetry, Pope, perhaps, deserves the first place. On him foreigners look as one of the most successful writers of his time : his versification is the most harmonious, and his correctness the most remarkable of all our poets. A noted contemporary of his own, calls the English the finest writers on moral topics, and Pope the noblest moral writer of all the English. Mr. Pope has somewhere named himself the last English muse ; and, indeed, since his time, we have seen few productions that can justly lay claim to immortality : he carried the language to its highest perfection ; and those who have attempted still further to improve it, instead of ornament have only caught finery.

Such was the learning of this period ; it flourished without encouragement, and the English taste seemed to diffuse itself over all Europe. The French tragedies began to be written after the model of ours ; our philosophy was

adopted by all who pretended to reason for themselves. At present, however, when the learned of Europe are turned to the English writers for instruction, all spirit of learning has ceased among us. So little has been got by literature for more than an age, that none choose to turn to it for preferment. Church preferments, which were once given as the rewards of learning, have, for some time, deviated to the intriguing, venal, and base. All desire of novelty, in thinking, is suppressed among us; and our scholars, more pleased with security and ease than honour, coolly follow the reasonings of their predecessors, and walk round the circle of former discovery.¹

¹ This last paragraph is cut out of the later editions. The latest edition we have seen with it is that of 1808.—ED.

CHAPTER 7 OF 10

The first part of the chapter discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for the success of any business and for the protection of the interests of all parties involved. The text then goes on to describe the various methods and systems that can be used to collect, organize, and analyze financial data. It also discusses the importance of regular audits and the role of the auditor in ensuring the accuracy and integrity of the financial statements.

The second part of the chapter discusses the importance of maintaining accurate records of all transactions. It emphasizes that proper record-keeping is essential for the success of any business and for the protection of the interests of all parties involved. The text then goes on to describe the various methods and systems that can be used to collect, organize, and analyze financial data. It also discusses the importance of regular audits and the role of the auditor in ensuring the accuracy and integrity of the financial statements.

GOODY TWO-SHOES.

[It is a matter in dispute whether the excellent little story, 'Goody Two-Shoes,' was written by Goldsmith or by Giles Jones, the brother of Griffith Jones, the editor of the *Public Ledger*. Washington Irving and William Godwin—the latter a publisher of children's books, like Newbery the publisher of this story—suggested that it was by Goldsmith, and lately Mr. Charles Welsh has made out a very strong case for this theory (see his preface to the facsimile reprint of the 1766 edition of 'Goody Two-Shoes,' Griffith and Farran, 1881, and his letters in the *Athenæum*, April, 1881). Miss Yonge also thinks the little book is Goldsmith's (*vide* the 'Store-house of Stories,' 1st series, pp. vi and 69, and our quotation at p. 367). But even if Goldsmith was not the author of the tale itself, he may have written its Introduction (pp. 353-356). His employment by Newbery at the time the story was issued, about 1763, the extraneous and, as we may say, political character of the leading matter of the Introduction, and the manifest similarity of its teaching to that of the 'Deserted Village,' all point, we think, to Goldsmith as the author of at least this part of the little book. We incline to think that Goldsmith wrote the Introduction, but not the text of the book. Though, then, as there must have been some adaptation in the production of the two parts (as, for instance, in the passages which so closely agree relative to Gripe's dealings with Goody and her father at pp. 354, 355, Introduction, and pp. 359, &c., text), the question is raised, whether Goldsmith adapted his Introduction to the text or whether the writer of the text adapted his matter to the Introduction? See also note 2 at p. 356, a note at p. 19 of the 'Life,' in vol. i., and the Appendix note on 'Goody Two-Shoes,' and the 'Note of Omissions' at the end of the present volume.

The text of our reprint is from the third edition, 1766. The annexed facsimile title and dedication are from Mr. Charles Welsh's reproduction of 1881. The first edition is supposed to have been published in 1765, but no copy of this or of the second edition is known to exist. An edition was published in America as early as 1787 (Isaiah Thomas, Worcester, Massachusetts), but this seems to be a reprint of the English third edition. In the "Introduction" of this American reprint Isaiah Thomas's name is substituted for that of Newbery (Thomas having other reprints of English children's books to sell); and here the patriotic, as well as tradesman-like Yankee publisher has not failed to introduce "England" as the name of the place where the "diabolical proceedings" of peasant driving is practised.—ED.]

[TITLE-PAGE OF THE THIRD EDITION.]

T H E
H I S T O R Y
O F

Little GOODY TWO-SHOES;

Otherwise called,

Mrs. MARGERY TWO-SHOES.

W I T H

The Means by which she acquired her
Learning and Wisdom, and in conse-
quence thereof her Estate; set forth
at large for the Benefit of those,

*Who from a State of Rags and Care,
And having Shoes but half a Pair;
Their Fortune and their Fame would fix,
And gallop in a Coach and Six.*

See the Original Manuscript in the *Vatican*
at *Rome*, and the Cuts by *Michael Angelo*.
Illustrated with the Comments of our
great modern Critics.

The THIRD EDITION.

L O N D O N:

Printed for J. NEWBERRY, at the *Bible and*
Sun in *St. Paul's-Church-Yard*, 1766.

[Price Six-pence.]

T O A L L

Young Gentlemen and Ladies,

Who are good, or intend to be good,

This B O O K

Is inscribed by

Their old Friend

In St. Paul's Church-yard.

THE RENOWNED
HISTORY OF
LITTLE GOODY TWO-SHOES;
COMMONLY CALLED
OLD GOODY TWO-SHOES.

PART I.

INTRODUCTION. BY THE EDITOR.

ALL the world must allow that Two-Shoes was not her real name. No; her father's name was Meanwell;¹ and he was for many years a considerable farmer in the parish where Margery was born; but by the misfortunes which he met with in business, and the wicked persecutions of Sir Timothy Gripe, and an overgrown farmer called Graspall, he was effectually ruined.

The case was thus. The parish of Mouldwell, where they lived, had for many ages been let by the Lord of the Manor into twelve different farms, in which the tenants lived comfortably, brought up large families, and carefully supported the poor people who laboured for them; until

¹ The name "Meanwell," sometimes "Meanwell Wilson," appears as a signature to sundry occasional letters in the *Public Ledger* of 1760, and these letters may therefore have been written by either Giles Jones or John Newbery himself. "Meanwell" is also the name of a character in the 'Lilliputian Magazine,' another of Newbery's children's books, dating back to 1752. See *ante*, p. 350, and note 3 at p. 356.—ED.

the estate by marriage and by death came into the hands of Sir Timothy.

This gentleman, who loved himself better than all his neighbours, thought it less trouble to write one receipt for his rent than twelve, and farmer Graspall offering to take all the farms as the leases expired, Sir Timothy agreed with him, and in process of time, he was possessed of every farm, but that occupied by little Margery's father; which he also wanted; for as Mr. Meanwell was a charitable, good man, he stood up for the poor at the parish meetings, and was unwilling to have them oppressed by Sir Timothy, and this avaricious farmer. Judge, oh, kind, humane, and courteous reader, what a terrible situation the poor must be in, when this covetous man was perpetual Overseer, and every thing for their maintenance was drawn from his hard heart and cruel hand! But he was not only perpetual Overseer, but perpetual Churchwarden; and judge, oh, ye Christians, what state the church must be in when supported by a man without religion or virtue! He was also perpetual Surveyor of the Highways, and what sort of roads he kept up for the convenience of travellers, those best know who have had the misfortune to be obliged to pass through that parish. Complaints, indeed, were made, but to what purpose are complaints when brought against a man who can hunt, drink, and smoke with the Lord of the Manor, who is also the Justice of Peace?

The opposition which little Margery's father made to this man's tyranny gave offence to Sir Timothy, who endeavoured to force him out of his farm; and to oblige him to throw up the lease, ordered both a brick-kiln and a dog-kennel to be erected in the farmer's orchard. This was contrary to law and a suit was commenced, in which Margery's father got the better. The same offence was committed three different times, and as many actions brought, in all of which the farmer had a verdict and costs paid him; but notwithstanding these advantages, the law was so expensive, that he was ruined in the contest, and obliged to give up all he had to his creditors; which effectually answered the purpose of Sir Timothy, who erected those nuisances in the farmer's orchard with that intention only. Ah, my dear reader, we brag of liberty, and boast of our

laws ; but the blessings of the one, and the protection of the other seldom fall to the lot of the poor ; and especially when a rich man is their adversary. How, in the name of goodness, can a poor wretch obtain redress, when thirty pounds are insufficient to fight his cause ? Where is he to find money to fee counsel, or how can he plead his cause himself (even if he was permitted) when our laws are so obscure, and so multiplied that an abridgment of them cannot be contained in fifty volumes in folio ?

As soon as Mr. Meanwell had called together his creditors, Sir Timothy seized for a year's rent, and turned the farmer, his wife, little Margery, and her brother out of doors, without any of the necessaries of life to support them.

This elated the heart of Mr. Graspall, this crowned his hopes, and filled the measure of his iniquity ; for besides gratifying his revenge, this man's overthrow gave him the sole dominion of the poor, whom he depressed and abused in a manner too horrible to mention.

Margery's father flew into another parish for succour, and all those who were able to move left their dwellings and sought employment elsewhere, as they found it would be impossible to live under the tyranny of two such people. The very old, the very lame, and the blind were obliged to stay behind, and whether they were starved or what became of them, history does not say ; but the character of the great Sir Timothy, and his avaricious tenant, were so infamous, that nobody would work for them by the day, and servants were afraid to engage themselves by the year, lest any unforeseen accident should leave them parishioners in a place where they knew they must perish miserably ; so that great part of the land lay untilled for some years, which was deemed a just reward for such diabolical proceedings.

But what, says the reader, can occasion all this ? Do you intend this for children, Mr. Newbery ? Why, do you suppose this is written by Mr. Newbery, Sir ? This may come from another hand.¹ This is not the book, Sir, mentioned

¹ This disassociation of "the Editor" from the writer of the story favours the theory of dual authorship, and may tell for Goldsmith as the writer of the Introduction, and for Giles Jones, or perhaps John Newbery, as the writer of the story itself.—ED.

in the title, but the Introduction to that book; and it is intended, Sir, not for those sort of children, but for children of six feet high, of which, as my friend¹ has justly observed, there are many millions in the kingdom;² and these reflections, Sir, have been rendered necessary by the unaccountable and diabolical scheme which many gentlemen now give in to, of laying a number of farms into one, and very often of a whole parish into one farm; which in the end must reduce the common people to a state of vassalage worse than that under the barons of old, or of the clans in Scotland; and will in time depopulate the kingdom. But as you are tired of the subject, I shall take myself away, and you may visit Little Margery. So, Sir, your Servant,

THE EDITOR.³

¹ "My friend" here appears to be John Newbery; and it seems, therefore, that "the Editor" attributes the after-coming story to him. See the fore-part of our Appendix note on 'Goody Two-Shoes,' &c.—ED.

² Where did "my friend" (*i.e.* Newbery) "justly observe" this? Was it in the anonymous politico-economical work mentioned in our Appendix (p. 406), or some similar work?—ED.

³ Mr. E. Pearson, the bookseller and Bewick collector, and later Mr. C. Welsh, have attributed some dozen other of the children's books published by J. Newbery to Goldsmith. These include—'Giles Gingerbread,' 'The Lilliputian Magazine,' 'The Lilliputian Masquerade,' 'Tom Thumb's Folio,' 'Easter Gift,' 'A Pretty Plaything' ('Tommy Trip'), 'The Fairing,' 'Be Merry and Wise,' 'The Valentine's Gift,' 'Pretty Poems for the Amusement of Children Three Feet High,' 'Æsop's Fables,' and 'Tom Telescope.' But herein perhaps Messrs. Pearson and Welsh have gone too far. The 'Lilliputian Magazine,' for instance, dates as early as 1752, when Goldsmith was a medical student in Edinburgh, and the house of Newbery in St. Paul's Churchyard knew him not. Our author may have edited and added to new issues of some of these little books, as he appears to have edited and added to 'Goody Two-Shoes,' if he did not write the whole of it; but 'Goody Two-Shoes' is manifestly later than all the above-mentioned little books. Since writing the above, a glance through the 'Lilliputian Magazine,' one of the 'Goody Two-Shoes' series of children's books issued by Newbery (and further noticed at p. 411 of the Appendix to the present volume), inclines us to the view that the narrative portion of 'Goody Two-Shoes' and the 'Lilliputian Magazine' are by the same writer, who, however, could not have been Goldsmith, because the 'Lilliputian Magazine' was published in 1752 (see p. 350). Only the Introduction, therefore, of 'Goody Two-Shoes' is, with perhaps some additions, we think, by Goldsmith.—ED.

CHAPTER I.

HOW AND ABOUT LITTLE MARGERY AND HER BROTHER.

CARE and discontent shortened the days of little Margery's father. He was forced from his family, and seized with a violent fever in a place where Dr. James's Powder¹ was not to be had, and where he died miserably. Margery's poor mother survived the loss of her husband but a few days, and died of a broken heart, leaving Margery and her little brother to the wide world; but, poor woman, it would have melted your heart to have seen how frequently she heaved up her head, while she lay speechless, to survey with languishing looks her little orphans, as much as to say, "Do Tommy, do Margery, come with me." They cried, poor things, and she sighed away her soul; and I hope is happy. It would both have excited your pity, and have done your heart good, to have seen how fond these two little ones were of each other, and how, hand in hand, they trotted about. Pray see them.² They were both very ragged, and Tommy had two shoes, but Margery had but one. They had nothing, poor things, to support them (not being in their own parish) but what they picked from the hedges, or got from the poor people, and they lay every night in a barn. Their relations took no notice of them; no, they were rich, and ashamed to own such a poor little ragged girl as Margery, and such a dirty little curl-pated

¹ A medicine sold by Newbery. See Appendix, p. 407; also vol. i., p. 39, vol. iii., p. 256, &c.—ED.

² This and other similar indicative passages which follow point to the curious little rough wood-cuts of the 1766 edition, which wood-cuts we leave out. Mr. Welsh's reprint of 1881 being a facsimile of course gives these cuts. 'Goody Two-Shoes' and some others of Newbery's children's books are sometimes said to have been illustrated by Bewick. The fact that the two famous Bewicks were born respectively in 1753 and 1760 shows this to be wrong with regard to Newbery's own issues, though it is true that Thomas Bewick illustrated some reprints of these books which Saint of Newcastle brought out about 1775.—ED.

boy as Tommy. Our relations and friends seldom take notice of us when we are poor; but as we grow rich they grow fond. And this will always be the case, while people love money better than virtue, or better than they do God Almighty. But such wicked folks, who love nothing but money, and are proud and despise the poor, never come to any good in the end, as we shall see by-and-by.

CHAPTER II.

HOW AND ABOUT MR. SMITH.

MR. SMITH was a very worthy clergyman, who lived in the parish where little Margery and Tommy were born; and having a relation come to see him, who was a charitable good man, he sent for these children to him. The gentleman ordered little Margery a new pair of shoes, gave Mr. Smith some money to buy her clothes; and said, he would take Tommy and make him a little sailor; and accordingly he had a jacket and trowsers made for him, in which he now appears. Pray look at him.

After some days, the gentleman intended to go to London, and take little Tommy with him, of whom you will know more by-and-by, for we shall at a proper time present you with some part of his history, his travels and adventures.¹

The parting between these two little children was very affecting; Tommy cried, and Margery cried, and they kissed each other an hundred times. At last Tommy thus wiped off her tears with the end of his jacket, and bid her cry no more, for that he would come to her again, when he returned from sea. However, as they were so very fond, the gentleman would not suffer them to take leave of each other; but told Tommy he should ride out with him, and come back at night. When night came, little Margery grew very uneasy about her brother, and after sitting up as late as Mr. Smith would let her, she went crying to bed.

¹ See the note at p. 395.—ED.

CHAPTER III.

HOW LITTLE MARGERY OBTAINED THE NAME OF GOODY TWO-SHOES, AND WHAT HAPPENED IN THE PARISH.

As soon as little Margery got up in the morning, which was very early, she ran all round the village, crying for her brother; and after some time returned greatly distressed. However, at this instant, the shoemaker very opportunely came in with the new shoes, for which she had been measured by the gentleman's order.

Nothing could have supported little Margery under the affliction she was in for the loss of her brother, but the pleasure she took in her two shoes. She ran out to Mrs. Smith as soon as they were put on, and stroking down her ragged apron thus, cried out, "Two shoes, Mame, see two shoes." And so she behaved to all the people she met, and by that means obtained the name of Goody Two-Shoes, though her playmates called her Old Goody Two-Shoes.

Little Margery was very happy in being with Mr. and Mrs. Smith, who were very charitable and good to her, and had agreed to breed her up with their family; but as soon as that tyrant of the parish, that Graspall, heard of her being there, he applied first to Mr. Smith, and threatened to reduce his tithes if he kept her; and after that he spoke to Sir Timothy, who sent Mr. Smith a peremptory message by his servant, that "he should send back Meanwell's girl to be kept by her relations, and not harbour her in the parish." This so distressed Mr. Smith that he shed tears, and cried, "Lord have mercy on the poor!"

The prayers of the righteous fly upwards, and reach unto the throne of heaven, as will be seen in the sequel.

Mrs. Smith was also greatly concerned at being thus obliged to discard poor little Margery. She kissed her and cried; as also did Mr. Smith, but they were obliged to send her away; for the people who had ruined her father could at any time have ruined them.

CHAPTER IV.

HOW LITTLE MARGERY LEARNED TO READ, AND BY
DEGREES TAUGHT OTHERS.

LITTLE Margery saw how good, and how wise Mr. Smith was, and concluded, that this was owing to his great learning, therefore she wanted of all things to learn to read. For this purpose she used to meet the little boys and girls as they came from school, borrow their books, and sit down and read till they returned; by this means she soon got more learning than any of her playmates, and laid the following scheme for instructing those who were more ignorant than herself. She found, that only the following letters were required to spell all the words in the world; but as some of these letters are large and some small, she with her knife cut out of several pieces of wood ten sets of each of these:

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z

and six sets of these:

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S
T U V W X Y Z.

And having got an old spelling-book, she made her companions set up all the words they wanted to spell, and after that she taught them to compose sentences. You know what a sentence is, my dear, *I will be good*, is a sentence; and is made up, as you see, of several words.

The usual manner of spelling, or carrying on the game, as they called it, was this: suppose the word to be spelt was plum pudding (and who can suppose a better) the children were placed in a circle, and the first brought the letter p, the next l, the next u, the next m, and so on till the whole was spelt; and if any one brought a wrong letter, he was to pay a fine, or play no more. This was at their play; and every morning she used to go round to

teach the children with these rattle-traps in a basket, as you see in the print. I once went her rounds with her, and was highly diverted, as you may be, if you please to look into the next chapter.

CHAPTER V.

HOW LITTLE TWO-SHOES BECAME A TROTting TUTORESS,
AND HOW SHE TAUGHT HER YOUNG PUPILS.

It was about seven o'clock in the morning when we set out on this important business, and the first house we came to was farmer Wilson's. See here it is. Here Margery stopped, and ran up to the door, tap, tap, tap. "Who's there?" "Only Little Goody Two-Shoes," answered Margery, "come to teach Billy." "Oh, Little Goody," says Mrs. Wilson, with pleasure in her face, "I am glad to see you. Billy wants you sadly, for he has learned all his lesson." Then out came the little boy. "How do, Doody Two-Shoes," says he, not able to speak plain. Yet this little boy had learned all his letters; for she threw down this alphabet mixed together thus:

b d f h k m o q s u w y z f a c e g i l n p r t v x j

and he picked them up, called them by their right names, and put them all in order thus:

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

She then threw down the alphabet of capital letters in the manner you here see them.

B D F H K M O Q S U W Y Z A C E G I L
N P R T V X J

and he picked them all up, and having told their names, placed them thus:

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S
T U V W X Y Z.

Now, pray little reader, take this bodkin, and see if you can point out the letters from these mixed alphabets, and tell how they should be placed as well as little boy Billy.

The next place we came to was farmer Simpson's, and here it is. "Bow wow, wow," says the dog at the door. "Sirrah," says his mistress, "what, do you bark at Little Two-Shoes! Come in, Madge; here, Sally wants you sadly, she has learned all her lesson." Then out came the little one: "So, Madge!" says she: "So, Sally!" answered the other, "have you learned your lesson?" "Yes, that's what I have," replied the little one in the country manner; and immediately taking the letters she set up these syllables:

ba be bi bo bu, ca ce ci co cu, da de di do du, fa fe fi fo fu

and gave them their exact sounds as she composed them; after which she set up the following:

ac ec ic oc uc, ad ed id od ud, af ef if of uf, ag eg ig og ug

and pronounced them likewise. She then sung the Cuzz's Chorus (which may be found in the "Little Pretty Play Thing," published by Mr. Newbery) and to the same tune to which it is there set.

After this, Little Two-Shoes taught her to spell words of one syllable, and she soon set up pear, plum, top, ball, pin, puss, dog, hog, fawn, buck, doe, lamb, sheep, ram, cow, bull, cock, hen, and many more.

The next place we came to was Gaffer Cook's cottage; there you see it before you.

Here a number of poor children were met to learn, who all came round little Margery at once; and, having pulled out her letters, she asked the little boy next her, what he had for dinner? who answered, "Bread" (the poor children in many places live very hard). "Well then," says she, "set the first letter." He put up the letter B, to which the next added r, and the next e, the next a, the next d, and it stood thus, Bread.

"And what had you, Polly Comb, for your dinner?" "Apple-pie," answered the little girl: upon which the next

in turn set up a great A, the two next a p each, and so on till the two words Apple and pie were united and stood thus, Apple-pie.

The next had potatoes, the next beef and turnip, which were spelt with many others, till the game of spelling was finished. She then set them another task, and we proceeded.

The next place we came to was Farmer Thompson's, where there were a great many little ones waiting for her.

"So, little Mrs. Goody Two-Shoes," says one of them, "where have you been so long?" "I have been teaching," says she, "longer than I intended, and am afraid I am come too soon for you now." "No, but indeed you are not," replied the other; "for I have got my lesson, and so has Sally Dawson, and so has Harry Wilson, and so we have all;" and they capered about as if they were overjoyed to see her. "Why then," says she, "you are all very good, and God Almighty will love you; so let us begin our lessons." They all huddled round her, and though at the other place they were employed about words and syllables, here we had people of much greater understanding who dealt only in sentences.

The letters being brought upon the table, one of the little ones set up the following sentence:

"The Lord have mercy upon me, and grant that I may be always good, and say my prayers, and love the Lord my God with all my heart, with all my soul, and with all my strength; and honour the king, and all good men in authority under him."

Then the next took the letters, and composed this sentence:

"Lord, have mercy upon me, and grant that I may love my neighbour as myself, and do unto all men as I would have them do unto me, and tell no lies; but be honest and just in all my dealings."

The third composed the following sentence:

"The Lord have mercy upon me, and grant that I may honour my father and mother, and love my brothers and sisters, relations and friends, and all my playmates, and every body, and endeavour to make them happy."

The fourth composed the following:

"I pray God to bless this whole company, and all our friends, and all our enemies."

To this last Polly Sullen objected, and said, truly, she did not know why she should pray for her enemies. "Not pray for your enemies," says Little Margery; "yes, you must, you are no Christian if you don't forgive your enemies and do good for evil." Polly still pouted; upon which Little Margery said, though she was poor, and obliged to lie in a barn, she would not keep company with such a naughty, proud, perverse girl as Polly; and was going away. However, the difference was made up, and she set them to compose the following

LESSONS FOR THE CONDUCT OF LIFE.

LESSON I.

He that will thrive
Must rise by five.
He that hath thriv'n
May lie till seven.
Truth may be blam'd
But cannot be sham'd.
Tell me with whom you go,
And I'll tell what you do.
A friend in your need
Is a friend indeed.
They ne'er can be wise
Who good counsel despise.

LESSON II.

A wise head makes a close mouth.
Don't burn your lips with another man's broth.
Wit is folly unless a wise man hath the keeping of it.
Use soft words and hard arguments.
Honey catches more flies than vinegar.
To forget a wrong is the best revenge.
Patience is a plaister for all sores.
Where pride goes shame will follow.
When vice enters the room vengeance is near the door.
Industry is fortune's right hand, and frugality her left.
Make much of threepence, or you ne'er will be worth a groat.

LESSON III.

A lie stands upon one leg, but truth upon two.
When a man talks much, believe but half what he says.
Fair words butter no parsnips.
Bad company poisons the mind.
A covetous man is never satisfied.
Abundance, like want, ruins many.
Contentment is the best fortune.
A contented mind is a continual feast.

A LESSON IN RELIGION.

Love God, for He is good.
Fear God, for He is just.
Pray to God, for all good things come from Him.
Praise God, for great is His Mercy towards us, and wonderful are all
His works.
Those who strive to be good have God on their side.
Those who have God for their friend shall want nothing.
Confess your sins to God, and if you repent He will forgive you.
Remember that all you do is done in the presence of God.
The time will come, my friends, when we must give
Account to God how we on earth did live.

A MORAL LESSON.

A good boy will make a good man.
Honour your parents, and the world will honour you.
Love your friends, and your friends will love you.
He that swims in sin will sink in sorrow.
Learn to live as you would wish to die.

As you expect all men should deal by you,
So deal by them, and give each man his due.

As we were returning home, we saw a gentleman who was very ill, sitting under a shady tree at the corner of his rookery. Though ill, he began to joke with little Margery, and said, laughingly, "So, Goody Two-Shoes, they tell me you are a cunning little baggage; pray, can you tell me what I shall do to get well?" "Yes, sir," says she; "go to bed when your rooks do. You see they are going to rest already. Do you so likewise, and get up with them in the morning; earn, as they do, every day what you eat, and eat and drink no more than you earn; and you'll get

health and keep it. What should induce the rooks to frequent gentlemen's houses only, but to tell them how to lead a prudent life? They never build over cottages or farmhouses, because they see that these people know how to live without their admonition.

Thus health and wit you may improve,
Taught by the tenants of the grove.

The gentleman, laughing, gave Margery sixpence; and told her she was a sensible hussey.

CHAPTER VI.

HOW THE WHOLE PARISH WAS FRIGHTED.

Who does not know Lady Ducklington, or who does not know that she was buried at this parish church? Well, I never saw so grand a funeral in all my life; but the money they squandered away would have been better laid out in little books for children, or in meat, drink, and clothes for the poor.

This is a fine hearse indeed, and the nodding plumes on the horses look very grand; but what end does that answer, otherwise than to display the pride of the living, or the vanity of the dead. Fie upon such folly, say I, and heaven grant that those who want more sense may have it!

But all the country round came to see the burying, and it was late before the corpse was interred; after which, in the night, or rather about four o'clock in the morning, the bells were heard to jingle in the steeple, which frightened the people prodigiously, who all thought it was Lady Duckington's ghost dancing among the bell-ropes. The people flocked to Will Dobbins, the clerk, and wanted him to go and see what it was; but William said he was sure it was a ghost, and that he would not offer to open the door. At length Mr. Long, the rector, hearing such an uproar in the village, went to the clerk, to know why he did not go into the church and see who was there. "I go,

sir!" says William; "why, the ghost would frighten me out of my wits." Mrs. Dobbins too cried, and laying hold of her husband, said "he should not be ate up by the ghost." "A ghost, you blockheads!" says Mr. Long in a pet, "did either of you ever see a ghost, or know anybody that did?" "Yes," says the clerk, my father did once, in the shape of a windmill, and it walked all round the church in a white sheet, with Jack Boots on, and had a gun by its side instead of a sword." "A fine picture of a ghost, truly," says Mr. Long, "give me the key of the church, you monkey; for I tell you there is no such thing now, whatever may have been formerly." Then taking the key, he went to the church, all the people following him. As soon as he had opened the door, what sort of a ghost do ye think appeared? Why Little Two-Shoes, who being weary, had fallen asleep in one of the pews during the funeral service, and was shut in all night. She immediately asked Mr. Long's pardon for the trouble she had given him, told him she had been locked into the church, and said she should not have rung the bells, but that she was very cold; and hearing Farmer Boulton's man go whistling by with his horses, she was in hopes he would have went to the clerk for the key to let her out.¹

CHAPTER VII.

CONTAINING AN ACCOUNT OF ALL THE SPIRITS, OR
GHOSTS, SHE SAW IN THE CHURCH.

THE people were ashamed to ask Little Madge any questions before Mr. Long; but as soon as he was gone, they all got round her to satisfy their curiosity, and desired she

¹ On this passage Miss Yonge, in support of her theory that Goldsmith wrote the story, says:—"Indeed we could almost imagine that Dr. Primrose himself had described the panic at the supposed ghost in the church, in the same tone as the ride to church, the family portrait, or the gross of green spectacles. The story has gone through many editions, and is to be found in several collections of tales for little children, but usually with this part eliminated." *Vide* 'Storehouse of Stories,' p. vi.—ED.

would give them a particular account of all that she had heard and seen.

HER TALE.

“I went to the church,” said she, “as most of you did last night, to see the burying, and being very weary, I sat me down in Mr. Jones’s pew, and fell fast asleep. At eleven of the clock I awoke, which I believe was in some measure occasioned by the clock’s striking, for I heard it. I started up, and could not at first tell where I was; but after some time I recollected the funeral, and soon found that I was shut in the church. It was dismal dark, and I could see nothing; but while I was standing in the pew, something jumped up upon me behind, and laid, as I thought, its hands over my shoulders. I own I was a little afraid at first; however, I considered that I had always been constant at prayers and at church, and that I had done nobody any harm, but had endeavoured to do what good I could; and then, thought I, what have I to fear? Yet I kneeled down to say my prayers. As soon as I was on my knees something very cold, as cold as marble, ay, as cold as ice, touched my neck, which made me start. However, I continued my prayers, and having begged protection from Almighty God, I found my spirits come, and I was sensible that I had nothing to fear, for God Almighty protects not only all those who are good, but also all those who endeavour to be good. Nothing can withstand the power, and exceed the goodness of God Almighty. Armed with the confidence of His protection, I walked down the church isle, when I heard something, pit-pat, pit-pat, pit-pat, come after me, and something touched my hand, which seemed as cold as a marble monument. I could not think what this was, yet I knew it could not hurt me, and therefore I made myself easy; but being very cold, and the church being paved with stone, which was very damp, I felt my way as well as I could to the pulpit, in doing which something brushed by me, and almost threw me down. However, I was not frightened, for I knew that God Almighty would suffer nothing to hurt me.

“At last, I found out the pulpit, and having shut too

the door, I laid me down on the mat and cushion to sleep, when something thrust and pulled the door, as I thought for admittance, which prevented my going to sleep. At last it cries, 'Bow, wow, wow,' and I concluded it must be Mr. Saunderson's dog, which had followed me from their house to church, so I opened the door, and called 'Snip, Snip,' and the dog jumped upon me immediately. After this Snip and I lay down together, and had a most comfortable nap, for when I awoke again it was almost light. I then walked up and down all the aisles of the church to keep myself warm; and though I went into the vault, and trod on Lady Ducklington's coffin, I saw no ghost, and I believe it was owing to the reason Mr. Long has given you, namely, that there is no such thing to be seen. As to my part, I would as soon lie all night in the church as in any other place; and I am sure that any little boy or girl who is good, and loves God Almighty, and keeps His Commandments, may as safely lie in the church, or the churchyard, as any where else, if they take care not to get cold, for I am sure there are no ghosts, either to hurt or to frighten them, though any one possessed of fear might have taken neighbour Saunderson's dog, with his cold nose, for a ghost; and if they had not been undeceived, as I was, would never have thought otherwise." All the company acknowledged the justness of the observation, and thanked Little Two-Shoes for her advice.

REFLECTION.

After this, my dear children, I hope you will not believe any foolish stories that ignorant, weak, or designing people may tell you about ghosts, for the tales of ghosts, witches, and fairies, are the frolics of a distempered brain. No wise man ever saw either of them. Little Margery, you see, was not afraid; no, she had good sense, and a good conscience, which is a cure for all these imaginary evils.

CHAPTER VIII.

OF SOMETHING WHICH HAPPENED TO LITTLE TWO-SHOES
IN A BARN, MORE DREADFUL THAN THE GHOST IN THE
CHURCH, AND HOW SHE RETURNED GOOD FOR EVIL TO
HER ENEMY, SIR TIMOTHY.

SOME days after this a more dreadful accident befell Little Madge. She happened to be coming late from teaching, when it rained, thundered, and lightened, and therefore she took shelter in a farmer's barn at a distance from the village. Soon after, the tempest drove in four thieves, who, not seeing such a little creep-mouse girl as Two-Shoes, lay down on the hay next to her, and began to talk over their exploits, and to settle plans for future robberies. Little Margery on hearing them, covered herself with straw. To be sure, she was sadly frightened, but her good sense taught her, that the only security she had was in keeping herself concealed, therefore she laid very still, and breathed very softly. About four o'clock these wicked people came to a resolution to break both Sir William Dove's house, and Sir Timothy Gripe's, and by force of arms to carry off all their money, plate, and jewels; but as it was thought then too late, they agreed to defer it till the next night. After laying this scheme they all set out upon their pranks, which greatly rejoiced Margery, as it would any other little girl in her situation. Early in the morning she went to Sir William, and told him the whole of their conversation. Upon which, he asked her name, gave her something, and bid her call at his house the day following. She also went to Sir Timothy, notwithstanding he had used her so ill; for she knew it was her duty to do good for evil. As soon as he was informed who she was he took no notice of her, upon which she desired to speak to Lady Gripe, and having informed her ladyship of the affair, she went her way. This lady had more sense than her husband, which indeed is not a singular case, for instead of despising little Margery and her information, she privately set people to guard the house. The robbers

divided themselves, and went about the time mentioned to both houses, and were surprised by the guards and taken. Upon examining these wretches, one of which turned evidence, both Sir William and Sir Timothy found that they owed their lives to the discovery made by Little Margery; and the first took great notice of her, and would no longer let her lie in a barn; but Sir Timothy only said that he was ashamed to owe his life to the daughter of one who was his enemy—so true it is that a proud man seldom forgives those he has injured.

CHAPTER IX.

HOW LITTLE MARGERY WAS MADE PRINCIPAL OF A COUNTRY COLLEGE.

MRS. WILLIAMS, of whom I have given a particular account in my “New Year’s Gift,”¹ and who kept a College for instructing little gentlemen and ladies in the science of A, B, C, was at this time very old and infirm, and wanted to decline that important trust. This being told to Sir William Dove, who lived in the parish, he sent for Mrs. Williams, and desired she would examine Little Two-Shoes, and see whether she was qualified for the office. This was done, and Mrs. Williams made the following report in her favour, namely, “that little Margery was the best scholar, and had the best head, and the best heart of any one she had examined.” All the country had a great opinion of Mrs. Williams, and this character gave them also a great opinion of Mrs. Margery, for so we must now call her.

This Mrs. Margery thought the happiest period of her life; but more happiness was in store for her. God Al-

¹ Another of Newbery’s children’s books. It figures as “No. 3” in the list of “Books usually read by the Scholars of Mrs. Two-shoes,” an advertisement list of these children’s books at the end of the third edition of ‘Goody Two-shoes.’ The ‘Lilliputian Magazine’ is “No. 26” in the same list. This would seem to show that the ‘New Year’s Gift’ dates even earlier than the ‘Lilliputian Magazine,’ *i.e.*, earlier than 1752, as computed at pp. 350, 356, &c.—ED.

mighty heaps up blessings for all those who love Him, and though for a time He may suffer them to be poor and distressed, and hide His good purposes from human sight, yet in the end they are generally crowned with happiness here, and no one can doubt of their being so hereafter.

On this occasion the following hymn, or rather a translation of the twenty-third Psalm, is said to have been written, and was soon after published in the "Spectator."

I.

"The Lord my pasture shall prepare,
And feed me with a shepherd's care :
His presence shall my wants supply,
And guard me with a watchful eye ;
My noon-day walks He shall attend,
And all my midnight hours defend.

II.

"When in the sultry glebe I faint,
Or on the thirsty mountain pant,
To fertile vales and dewy meads,
My weary wand'ring steps He leads,
Where peaceful rivers, soft and slow,
Amid the verdant landscape flow.

III.

"Though in the paths of death I tread,
With gloomy horrors overspread,
My stedfast heart shall fear no ill,
For thou, O Lord, art with me still ;
Thy friendly crook shall give me aid,
And guide me through the dreadful shade.

IV.

"Though in a bare and rugged way,
Through devious, lonely wilds I stray,
Thy bounty shall my pains beguile :
The barren wilderness shall smile,
With sudden green and herbage crown'd,
And streams shall murmur all around."¹

Here ends the History of Little Two Shoes. Those who would know how she behaved after she came to be Mrs. Margery Two-Shoes must read the Second Part of this work, in which an account of the remainder of her life, her marriage, and death are set forth at large, according to Act of Parliament.

¹ *Spectator*, No. 441, July 26, 1712.—ED.

THE RENOWNED
HISTORY OF
MRS. MARGERY TWO-SHOES.

PART II.

INTRODUCTION.

IN the first part of this work, the young student has read, and I hope with pleasure and improvement, the history of this lady while she was known and distinguished by the name of Little Two-Shoes; we are now come to a period of her life when that name was discarded, and a more eminent one bestowed upon her, I mean that of Mrs. Margery Two-Shoes: for as she was now President of the A, B, C College, it became necessary to exalt her in title as well as in place.

No sooner was she settled in this office, but she laid every possible scheme to promote the welfare and happiness of all her neighbours, and especially of the little ones, in whom she took great delight, and all those whose parents could not afford to pay for their education, she taught for nothing but the pleasure she had in their company, for you are to observe that they were very good, or were soon made so by her good management.

CHAPTER I.

OF HER SCHOOL, HER USHERS OR ASSISTANTS, AND HER MANNER OF TEACHING.

WE have already informed the reader, that the school where she taught was that which was before kept by Mrs. Williams, whose character you may find in my "New Year's Gift." The room was large, and as she knew that nature intended children should be always in action, she placed her different letters, or alphabets, all round the school, so that every one was obliged to get up to fetch a letter, or to spell a word, when it came to their turn, which not only kept them in health, but fixed the letters and points firmly in their minds.

She had the following assistants or ushers to help her, and I will tell you how she came by them. Mrs. Margery, you must know, was very humane and compassionate; and her tenderness extended not only to all mankind, but even to all animals that were not noxious; as your's ought to do, if you would be happy here, and go to heaven hereafter. These are God Almighty's creatures as well as we. He made both them and us; and for wise purposes, best known to Himself, placed them in this world to live among us, so that they are our fellow tenants of the globe. How, then, can people dare to torture and wantonly destroy God Almighty's creatures? They as well as you are capable of feeling pain and of receiving pleasure, and how can you, who want to be made happy yourself, delight in making your fellow-creatures miserable? Do you think the poor birds, whose nest and young ones that wicked boy Dick Wilson ran away with yesterday, do not feel as much pain as your father and mother would have felt, had any one pulled down their house and ran away with you? To be sure they do. Mrs. Two-Shoes used to speak of those things, and of naughty boys throwing at cocks, torturing flies, and whipping horses and dogs, with tears in her eyes, and would never suffer any one to come to her school who did so.

One day, as she was going through the next village, she met with some wicked boys who had got a young raven, which they were going to throw at. She wanted to get the poor creature out of their cruel hands, and therefore gave them a penny for him, and brought him home. She called his name Ralph, and a fine bird he is. Do look at him, and remember what Solomon says, "The eye that despiseth his father, and regardeth not the distress of his mother, the ravens of the valley shall peck it out, and the young eagles eat it." Now this bird she taught to speak, to spell, and to read, and as he was particularly fond of playing with the large letters, the children used to call this Ralph's alphabet.

A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W
X Y Z.¹

He always sat at her elbow, as you see in the first picture, and when any of the children were wrong, she used to call out, "Put them right, Ralph."

Some days after she had met with the raven, as she was walking in the fields, she saw some naughty boys, who had taken a pigeon, and tied a string to its leg, in order to let it fly and draw it back again when they pleased; and by this means they tortured the poor animal with the hopes of liberty and repeated disappointment. This pigeon she also bought, and taught him how to spell and read, though not to talk, and he performed all those extraordinary things which are recorded of the famous bird that was some time since advertised in the Haymarket, and visited by most of the great people in the kingdom. This pigeon was a very pretty fellow, and she called him Tom. See, here he is. And as the raven Ralph was fond of the large letters, Tom the pigeon took care of the small ones, of which he composed this alphabet.

¹ In the 'Lilliputian Magazine' there is a good deal to do with similar schemes of juvenile teaching. In the magazine there is a society of children educators called the "Lilliputian Society," which, indeed, are put forth as being the contributors to, and the proprietors of, the magazine; and of this society there is a long list (the names and addresses, by the way, looking very *real*). The date of the 'Lilliputian Magazine' appears to be, as we have stated at *ante*, p. 350, and Appendix, p. 411, about 1752.—ED.

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n o p q r s t u v w x y z.

The neighbours, knowing that Mrs. Two-Shoes was very good, as to be sure nobody was better, made her a present of a little skylark, and a fine bird he is.

Now as many people, even at that time, had learned to lie in bed long in the morning, she thought the lark might be of use to her and her pupils, and tell them when to get up.

“For he that is fond of his bed, and lays till noon, lives but half his days, the rest being lost in sleep, which is a kind of death.”

Some time after this a poor lamb had lost its dam, and the farmer being about to kill it, she bought it of him, and brought it home with her to play with the children, and teach them when to go to bed, for it was a rule with the wise men of that age (and a very good one, let me tell you) to

“Rise with the lark, and lie down with the lamb.”

This lamb she called Will, and a pretty fellow he is; do look at him. No sooner was Tippy the lark and Will the ba-lamb brought into the school, but that sensible rogue, Ralph the raven, composed the following verse, which every little good boy and girl should get by heart.

“Early to bed, and early to rise;
Is the way to be healthy, and wealthy, and wise.”

A sly rogue; but it is true enough, for those who do not go to bed early cannot rise early, and those who do not rise early cannot do much business. Pray, let this be told at the Court, and to people who have routs and rackets.

Soon after this, a present was made to Mrs. Margery of little dog Jumper, and a pretty dog he is. Pray, look at him. “Jumper, Jumper, Jumper!” He is always in a good humour, and playing and jumping about, and therefore he was called “Jumper.” The place assigned for Jumper was that of keeping the door, so that he may be called the porter of the College, for he would let nobody go out, or any one come in, without the leave of his mistress. See how he sits, a saucy rogue!

Billy, the ba-lamb, was a cheerful fellow, and all the

children were fond of him; wherefore Mrs. Two-Shoes made it a rule, that those who behaved best should have Will home with them at night, to carry their satchel or basket at his back, and bring it in the morning. See what a fine fellow he is, and how he trudges along!

CHAPTER II.

A SCENE OF DISTRESS IN THE SCHOOL.

It happened one day, when Mrs. Two-Shoes was diverting the children after dinner, as she usually did with some innocent games, or entertaining and instructive stories, that a man arrived with the melancholy news of Sally Jones's¹ father being thrown from his horse, and thought past all recovery; nay, the messenger said that he was seemingly dying when he came away. Poor Sally was greatly distressed, as indeed were all the school; for she dearly loved her father, and Mrs. Two-Shoes, and all the children dearly loved her. It is generally said that we never know the real value of our parents or friends till we have lost them; but poor Sally felt this by affection, and her mistress knew it by experience. All the school were in tears, and the messenger was obliged to return; but before he went, Mrs. Two-Shoes, unknown to the children, ordered Tom Pigeon to go home with the man, and bring a letter to inform her how Mr. Jones did. They set out together, and the pigeon rode on the man's head (as you see here), for the man was able to carry the pigeon, though the pigeon was not able to carry the man; if he had, they would have been there much sooner, for Tom Pigeon was very good, and never stayed on an errand.

Soon after the man was gone the pigeon was lost, and

¹ The fact that the name Jones is given to two of the characters (as above, and at p. 393) in 'Goody Two-Shoes' is somewhat against the theory that Giles Jones wrote the story. Giles, also, it will be found, is the name of the supposed witch mentioned at p. 392. It is naturally very unusual for an author to give his own name to any of his characters. —ED.

the concern the children were under for Mr. Jones and little Sally was in some measure diverted, and part of their attention turned after Tom, who was a great favourite, and consequently much bewailed. Mrs. Margery, who knew the great use and necessity of teaching children to submit cheerfully to the will of Providence, bid them wipe away their tears, and then kissing Sally, "You must be a good girl," says she, "and depend upon God Almighty for His blessing and protection; for He is a father to the fatherless, and defendeth all those who put their trust in Him." She then told them a story, which I shall relate in as few words as possible.

THE HISTORY OF MR. LOVEWELL, FATHER TO LADY LUCY.

"Mr. Lovewell was born at Bath, and apprenticed to a laborious trade in London, which being too hard for him, he parted with his master by consent, and hired himself as a common servant to a merchant in the city. Here he spent his leisure hours not as servants too frequently do, in drinking and schemes of pleasure, but in improving his mind; and among other acquirements, he made himself a complete master of accounts. His sobriety, honesty, and the regard he paid to his master's interest, greatly recommended him in the whole family, and he had several offices of trust committed to his charge, in which he acquitted himself so well, that the merchant removed him from the stable into the counting-house.

"Here he soon made himself master of the business, and became so useful to the merchant, that in regard to his faithful services, and the affection he had for him, he married him to his own niece, a prudent, agreeable young lady, and gave him a share in the business. See what honesty and industry will do for us! Half the great men in London, I am told, have made themselves by this means, and who would but be honest and industrious, when it is so much our interest and our duty?

"After some years the merchant died, and left Mr. Lovewell possessed of many fine ships at sea, and much money; and he was happy in a wife, who had brought him

a son and two daughters, all dutiful and obedient. The treasures and good things, however, of this life are so uncertain, that a man can never be happy unless he lays the foundation for it in his own mind. So true is that copy in our writing books, which tells us that 'a contented mind is a continual feast.'

"After some years successful trade, he thought his circumstances sufficient to insure his own ships, or, in other words, to send his ships and goods to sea without being insured by others, as is customary among merchants, when, unfortunately for him, four of them richly laden were lost at sea. This he supported with becoming resolution; but the next mail brought him advice, that nine others were taken by the French, with whom we were then at war; and this, together with the failure of three foreign merchants whom he had trusted, completed his ruin. He was then obliged to call his creditors together, who took his effects, and being angry with him for the imprudent step of not insuring his ships, left him destitute of all subsistence. Nor did the flatterers of his fortune, those who had lived by his bounty when in his prosperity, pay the least regard either to him or his family. So true is another copy, that you will find in your writing book, which says, 'Misfortune tries our friends.' All these slights of his pretended friends, and the ill-usage of his creditors, both he and his family bore with Christian fortitude; but other calamities fell upon him, which he felt more sensibly.

"In this distress, one of his relations, who lived at Florence, offered to take his son; and another, who lived at Barbadoes, sent for one of his daughters. The ship which his son sailed in was cast away, and all the crew supposed to be lost; and the ship, in which his daughter went a passenger, was taken by pirates, and one post brought the miserable father an account of the loss of his two children. This was the severest stroke of all: it made him completely wretched, and he knew it must have a dreadful effect on his wife and daughter; he therefore endeavoured to conceal it from them. But the perpetual anxiety he was in, together with the loss of his appetite and want of rest, soon alarmed his wife. She found something was labouring in his breast which was concealed from her; and one night,

being disturbed in a dream, with what was ever in his thoughts, and calling out upon his dear children, she awoke him, and insisted upon knowing the cause of his inquietude. 'Nothing, my dear—nothing,' says he; 'the Lord gave, and the Lord hath taken away; blessed be the name of the Lord.' This was sufficient to alarm the poor woman; she lay till his spirits were composed, and as she thought asleep, then stealing out of bed, got the keys and opened his bureau, where she found the fatal account. In the height of her distractions, she flew to her daughter's room, and waking her with her shrieks, put the letters into her hands. The young lady, unable to support this load of misery, fell into a fit, from which it was thought she never could have been recovered. However, at last she revived; but the shock was so great that it entirely deprived her of her speech.

"Thus loaded with misery, and unable to bear the slights and disdain of those who had formerly professed themselves friends, this unhappy family retired into a country where they were unknown, in order to hide themselves from the world, when, to support their independency, the father laboured as well as he could at husbandry, and the mother and daughter sometimes got spinning and knitting work, to help to furnish the means of subsistence, which, however, was so precarious and uncertain, that they often, for many weeks together, lived on nothing but cabbage and bread boiled in water. But God never forsaketh the righteous, nor suffereth those to perish who put their trust in Him. At this time a lady who was just come to England sent to take a pleasant seat ready furnished in that neighbourhood, and the person who was employed for the purpose was ordered to deliver a bank-note of a hundred pounds to Mr. Lovewell, another hundred to his wife, and fifty to the daughter, desiring them to take possession of the house, and get it well aired against she came down, which would be in two or three days at most. This, to people who were almost starving, was a sweet and seasonable relief; and they were all solicitous to know their benefactress, but of that the messenger himself was too ignorant to inform them. However, she came down sooner than was expected, and with tears embraced them again

and again; after which she told the father and mother she had heard from their daughter, who was her acquaintance, and that she was well, and on her return to England. This was the agreeable subject of their conversation till after dinner, when drinking their healths, she again with tears saluted them, and falling upon her knees asked their blessings. It is impossible to express the mutual joy which this occasioned. Their conversation was made up of the most endearing expressions, intermingled with tears and caresses. Their torrent of joy, however, was for a moment interrupted, by a chariot which stopped at the gate, and which brought, as they thought, a very unseasonable visitor, and therefore she sent to be excused from seeing company.

“But this had no effect, for a gentleman richly dressed jumped out of the chariot, and pursuing the servant into the parlour, saluted them round, who were all astonished at his behaviour. But when the tears trickled from his cheeks, the daughter, who had been some years dumb, immediately cried out, ‘My brother! my brother! my brother!’ and from that instant recovered her speech. The mutual joy which this occasioned is better felt than expressed. Those who have proper sentiments of humanity, gratitude, and filial piety will rejoice at the event; and those who have a proper idea of the goodness of God, and His gracious providence, will from this, as well as other instances of His goodness and mercy, glorify His holy Name, and magnify His wisdom and power, who is a shield to the righteous, and defendeth all those who put their trust in Him.

“As you, my dear children, may be solicitous to know how this happy event was brought about, I must inform you that Mr. Lovewell’s son, when the ship foundered, had with some others got into the long boat, and was taken up by a ship at sea, and carried to the East Indies, where in a little time he made a large fortune. And the pirates who took his daughter, attempted to rob her of her chastity; but finding her inflexible, and determined to die rather than to submit, some of them behaved to her in a very cruel manner, but others, who had more honour and generosity, became her defenders, upon which a quarrel arose

between them, and the captain, who was the worst of the gang, being killed, the rest of the crew carried the ship into a port of the Manilla Islands, belonging to the Spaniards, where, when her story was known, she was treated with great respect, and courted by a young gentleman, who was taken ill of a fever, and died before the marriage was agreed on, but left her his whole fortune.

“You see, my dear Sally, how wonderfully these people were preserved and made happy after such extreme distress. We are, therefore, never to despair, even under the greatest misfortunes, for God Almighty is all-powerful, and can deliver us at any time. Remember Job; but I think you have not read so far. Take the Bible, Billy Jones, and read the history of that good and patient man.” At this instant something was heard to flap at the window. “Wow, wow, wow,” says Jumper, and attempted to leap up and open the door, at which the children were surprised; but Mrs. Margery, knowing what it was, opened the casement, as Noah did the window of the ark, and drew in Tom Pigeon with a letter; and see, here he is.

As soon as he was placed on the table, he walked up to little Sally, and dropping the letter, cried, “Co, co, coo!” as much as to say, “There, read it!” Now this poor pigeon had travelled fifty miles in about an hour, to bring Sally this letter, and who would destroy such pretty creatures? But let us read the letter.

MY DEAR SALLY,

God Almighty has been very merciful, and restored your papa to us again, who is now so well as to be able to sit up. I hear you are a good girl, my dear, and I hope you will never forget to praise the Lord for this His great goodness and mercy to us. What a sad thing it would have been if your father had died, and left both you and me and little Tommy in distress and without a friend! Your father sends his blessing with mine. Be good, my dear child, and God Almighty will also bless you, whose blessing is above all things.

I am, my dear Sally,

Your ever affectionate mother,

MARTHA JONES.

CHAPTER III.

OF THE AMAZING SAGACITY AND INSTINCT OF A
LITTLE DOG.

Soon after this a dreadful accident happened in the school. It was on a Thursday morning, I very well remember, when the children having learned their lessons soon, she had given them leave to play, and they were all running about the school, and diverting themselves with the birds and the lamb. At this time the dog, all of a sudden, laid hold of his mistress's apron, and endeavoured to pull her out of the school. She was at first surprised; however, she followed him to see what he intended. No sooner had he led her into the garden, but he ran back, and pulled out one of the children in the same manner; upon which she ordered them all to leave the school immediately, and they had not been out five minutes, before the top of the house fell in. What a miraculous deliverance was here! How gracious! how good was God Almighty, to save all these children from destruction, and to make use of such an instrument as a little sagacious animal to accomplish His divine will! I should have observed that as soon as they were all in the garden, the dog came leaping round them to express his joy, and when the house was fallen, laid himself down quietly by his mistress.

Some of the neighbours who saw the school fall, and who were in great pain for Margery and the little ones, soon spread the news through the village, and all the parents, terrified for their children, came crowding in abundance; they had, however, the satisfaction to find them all safe, and upon their knees, with their mistress, giving God thanks for their happy deliverance.

ADVICE FROM THE MAN IN THE MOON.

Jumper, Jumper, Jumper! what a pretty dog he is, and how sensible! Had mankind half the sagacity of Jumper,

they would guard against accidents of this sort by having a public survey occasionally made of all the houses in every parish (especially of those which are old and decayed), and not suffer them to remain in a crazy state till they fall down on the heads of the poor inhabitants and crush them to death. Why, it was but yesterday that a whole house fell down in Gracechurch Street, and another in Queen Street, and a hundred more are to tumble, before this time twelve months; so friends, take care of yourselves, and tell the legislature they ought to take care for you. How can you be so careless? Most of your evils arise from carelessness and extravagance, and yet you excuse yourselves, and lay the fault upon fortune. Fortune is a fool, and you are a blockhead if you put it in her power to play tricks with you.

Yours,

THE MAN IN THE MOON.

You are not to wonder, my dear reader, that this little dog should have more sense than you, or your father, or your grandmother.

Though God Almighty has made man the lord of creation, and endowed him with reason, yet in many respects he has been altogether as bountiful to other creatures of his forming. Some of the senses of other animals are more acute than ours, as we find by daily experience. You know this little bird, sweet Jug, Jug, Jug, 'tis a nightingale. This little creature, after she has entertained us with her songs all the spring, and bred up her little ones, flies into a foreign country, and finds her way over the great sea without any of the instruments and helps which men are obliged to make use of for that purpose. Were you as wise as the nightingale you might make all the sailors happy, and have twenty thousand pounds for teaching them the longitude.

You would not think Ralph the raven half so wise and so good as he is, though you see him here reading his book. Yet when the prophet Elijah was obliged to fly from Ahab, King of Israel, and hide himself in a cave, the ravens, at the command of God Almighty, fed him every day, and preserved his life.

“And the Word of the Lord came unto Elijah, saying, Hide thyself by the brook Cherith, that is before Jordan, and I have commanded the ravens to feed thee there. And the ravens brought him bread and flesh in the morning, and bread and flesh in the evening, and he drank of the brook.” (1 Kings, chap. xvii.)

And the pretty pigeon, when the world was drowned, and he was confined with Noah in the Ark, was sent forth by him to see whether the waters were abated. “And he sent forth a dove from him to see if the waters were abated from off the face of the ground. And the dove came in to him in the evening, and lo, in her mouth was an olive leaf plucked off: So Noah knew that the waters were abated from off the earth.” (Gen. viii. 8-11.)

As these and other animals are so sensible and kind to us, we ought to be tender and good to them, and not beat them about, and kill them, and take away their young ones, as many wicked boys do. Does not the horse and the ass carry you and your burdens? don't the ox plough your ground, the cow give you milk, the sheep clothe your back, the dog watch your house, the goose find you in quills to write with, the hen bring eggs for your custards and puddings, and the cock call you up in the morning when you are lazy and like to hurt yourselves by laying too long in bed? If so how can you be so cruel to them, and abuse God Almighty's good creatures? Go, naughty boy, go; be sorry for what you have done, and do so no more, that God Almighty may forgive you. Amen, say I, again and again. God will bless you, but not unless you are merciful and good.

The downfall of the school was a great misfortune to Mrs. Margery, for she not only lost all her books, but was destitute of a place to teach in; but Sir William Dove, being informed of this, ordered the house to be built at his own expense, and till that could be done, Farmer Grove was so kind as to let her have his large hall to teach in.

The house built by Sir William had a statue erected over the door of a boy sliding on the ice, and under it were these lines, written by Mrs. Two-Shoes, and engraved at her expense.

ON SIN. A SIMILE.

As a poor urchin on the ice,
 When he has tumbled once or twice,
 With cautious step, and trembling goes,
 The drop-stile¹ pendant on his nose,
 And trudges on to seek the shore,
 Resolv'd to trust the ice no more :
 But meeting with a daring mate,
 Who often us'd to slide and skate,
 Again is into danger led,
 And falls again, and breaks his head.

So youth when first they're drawn to sin,
 And see the danger they are in,
 Would gladly quit the thorny way,
 And think it is unsafe to stay ;
 But meeting with their wicked train,
 Return with them to sin again :
 With them the paths of vice explore ;
 With them are ruin'd evermore.

CHAPTER IV.

WHAT HAPPENED AT FARMER GROVE'S ; AND HOW SHE
 GRATIFIED HIM FOR THE USE OF HIS ROOM.

WHILE at Mr. Grove's, which was in the heart of the village, she not only taught the children in the day-time, but the farmer's servants and all the neighbours to read and write in the evening ; and it was a constant practice before they went away to make them all go to prayers, and sing psalms. By this means the people grew extremely regular, his servants were always at home instead of being at the ale-house, and he had more work done than ever. This gave not only Mr. Grove, but all the neighbours an high opinion of her good sense and prudent behaviour. And she was so much esteemed that most of the differences in the parish were left to her decision ; and if a man and

¹ Perhaps this should be "drop still pendant." Woodward, however, says "drop-stone" is a name for "spar which is formed into the shape of drops," and "drop-stile" may be here used to express icicle, or the like.
 —ED.

wife quarrelled (which sometimes happened in that part of the kingdom) both parties certainly came to her for advice. Every body knows that Martha Wilson was a passionate, scolding jade, and that John, her husband, was a surly, ill-tempered fellow. These were one day brought by the neighbours for Margery to talk to them, when they fairly quarrelled before her, and were going to blows; but she, stepping between them, thus addressed the husband: "John," says she, "you are a man, and ought to have more sense than to fly in a passion at every word that is said amiss by your wife; and Martha," says she, "you ought to know your duty better than to say anything to aggravate your husband's resentment. These frequent quarrels arise from the indulgence of your violent passions, for I know you both love one another notwithstanding what has passed between you. Now, pray tell me John, and tell me Martha, when you have had a quarrel the overnight are you not both sorry for it the next day?" They both declared that they were: "Why, then," says she, "I'll tell you how to prevent this for the future, if you will both promise to take my advice." They both promised her. "You know," says she, "that a small spark will set fire to tinder, and that tinder properly placed will fire a house; an angry word is with you as that spark, for you are both as touchy as tinder, and very often make your own house too hot to hold you. To prevent this, therefore, and to live happily for the future, you must solemnly agree that if one speaks an angry word the other will not answer till he or she has distinctly called over all the letters in the alphabet, and the other not reply till he has told twenty; by this means your passions will be stifled, and reason will have time to take the rule."

This is the best recipe that was ever given for a married couple to live in peace. Though John and his wife frequently attempted to quarrel afterwards they never could get their passions to any considerable height, for there was something so droll in thus carrying on the dispute that before they got to the end of the argument they saw the absurdity of it, laughed, kissed, and were friends.

Just as Mrs. Margery had settled this difference between John and his wife, the children (who had been sent out to

play while that business was transacting) returned, some in tears, and others very disconsolate, for the loss of a little dormouse they were very fond of, and which was just dead. Mrs. Margery, who had the art of moralizing and drawing instructions from every accident, took this opportunity of reading them a lecture on the uncertainty of life, and the necessity of being always prepared for death. "You should get up in the morning," says she, "and so conduct yourselves as if that day was to be your last, and lie down at night as if you never expected to see this world any more. This may be done," says she, "without abating of your cheerfulness, for you are not to consider death as an evil, but as a convenience, as a useful pilot, who is to convey you to a place of greater happiness: Therefore, play my dear children, and be merry; but be innocent and good. The good man sets death at defiance, for his darts are only dreadful to the wicked."

After this she permitted the children to bury the little dormouse, and desired one of them to write his epitaph, and here it is.

EPITAPH ON A DORMOUSE, REALLY WRITTEN BY A LITTLE BOY.¹

I.

In paper case,
Hard by this place,
Dead a poor dormouse lies;
And soon or late,
Summon'd by fate,
Each prince, each monarch dies.

II.

Ye sons of verse,
While I rehearse,
Attend instructive rhyme;
No sins had Dor
To answer for,
Repent of yours in time.

¹ Query, by one of the members of the "Lilliputian Society," and contributors to the 'Lilliputian Magazine'? In addition to what we have said of the 'Lilliputian Magazine' at p. 375 and elsewhere, we may note that we have found in that magazine 'The Adventures of Tommy Trip and his Dog Jouler,' which is the same in substance as the separate story which Mr. Pearson thinks was written by Goldsmith

CHAPTER V.

THE WHOLE HISTORY OF THE CONSIDERING CAP, SET FORTH
AT LARGE FOR THE BENEFIT OF ALL WHOM IT MAY
CONCERN.

THE great reputation Mrs. Margery acquired by composing differences in families, and especially between man and wife, induced her to cultivate that part of her system of morality and economy, in order to render it more extensively useful. For this purpose she contrived what she called a charm for the passions, which was a considering cap, almost as large as a grenadier's, but of three equal sizes, on the first of which was written, "I may be wrong;" on the second, "It is fifty to one but you are;" and on the third, "I'll consider of it." The other parts on the outside were filled with odd characters as unintelligible as the writings of the old Egyptians; but within side there was a direction for its use, of the utmost consequence, for it strictly enjoined the possessor to put on the cap whenever he found his passions begin to grow turbulent, and not to deliver a word whilst it was on, but with great coolness and moderation. As this cap was an universal cure for wrong-headedness, and prevented numberless disputes and quarrels, it greatly hurt the trade of the poor lawyers, but was of the utmost service to the rest of the community. They were bought by husbands and wives, who had themselves frequent occasion for them, and sometimes lent them to their children: they were also purchased in large quantities by masters and servants, by young folks who

for Newbery in 1765. No doubt 'Tommy Trip' was published separately, as is shown by Newbery's lists, but the version in the 'Lilliputian Magazine' is probably its earliest form. Mr. Pearson tells us that Miss Bewick thought 'Tommy Trip' to be by Goldsmith principally because the verses in it, "Three children sliding on the ice," &c., are so like (in structure) Goldsmith's 'Elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog,' &c. Now we find that this portion of the version of 'Tommy Trip' reprinted by Mr. Pearson (from, as he seems to say, the fifth edition), is *wanting* in the 'Lilliputian Magazine' version. Thus it would seem that even if the portion containing the verses "Three children," &c., is Goldsmith's, the major part of the story is not.—ED.

were intent on matrimony, by judges, jurymen, and even physicians and divines ; nay, if we may believe history, the legislators of the land did not disdain the use of them ; and we are told that when any important debate arose, " Cap " was the word, and each house looked like a grand synod of Egyptian priests. Nor was this cap of less use to partners in trade, for with these, as well as with husband and wife, if one was out of humour the other threw him the cap, and he was obliged to put it on and keep it till all was quiet. I myself saw thirteen caps worn at a time in one family, which could not have subsisted an hour without them ; and I was particularly pleased at Sir Humphry Huffum's to hear a little girl, when her father was out of humour, ask her mamma if she should reach down the cap. These caps, indeed, were of such utility that people of sense never went without them ; and it was common in the country, when a booby made his appearance and talked nonsense, to say he " had no cap in his pocket."

ADVICE FROM FRIAR BACON.

What was Fortunatus's Wishing-cap when compared to this ? That cap is said to have conveyed people instantly from one place to another ; but, as the change of place does not change the temper and disposition of the mind, little benefit can be expected from it ; nor indeed is much to be hoped from his famous purse. That purse, it is said, was never empty, and such a purse may be sometimes convenient ; but as money will not purchase peace it is not necessary for a man to encumber himself with a great deal of it. Peace and happiness depend so much upon the state of a man's own mind, and upon the use of the Considering-cap, that it is generally his own fault if he is miserable. One of these caps will last a man his whole life, and is a discovery of much greater importance to the public than the philosopher's stone. Remember what was said by my Brazen Head, " Time is : time was : time is past." Now the *Time is*, therefore buy the cap immediately, and make a proper use of it, and be happy before the *Time is past*.

Yours,

ROGER BACON.

CHAPTER VI.

HOW MRS. MARGERY WAS TAKEN UP FOR A WITCH, AND
WHAT HAPPENED ON THAT OCCASION.

AND so it is true? And they have taken up Mrs. Margery, then, and accused her of being a witch, only because she was wiser than some of her neighbours! Mercy upon me! people stuff children's heads with stories of ghosts, fairies, witches, and such nonsense when they are young, and so they continue fools all their days. The whole world ought to be made acquainted with her case, and here it is at their service.

THE CASE OF MRS. MARGERY.

Mrs. Margery, as we have frequently observed, was always doing good, and thought she could never sufficiently gratify those who had done anything to serve her. These generous sentiments naturally led her to consult the interest of Mr. Grove and the rest of her neighbours, and as most of their lands were meadow, and they depended much on their hay, which had been for many years greatly damaged by wet weather, she contrived an instrument to direct them when to mow their grass with safety, and prevent their hay being spoiled. They all came to her for advice, and by that means got in their hay without damage, while most of that in the neighbouring villages was spoiled.

This made a great noise in the country, and so provoked were the people in the other parishes that they accused her of being a witch, and sent Gaffer Goosecap, a busy fellow in other people's concerns, to find out evidence against her. This wiseacre happened to come to her school when she was walking about with the raven on one shoulder, the pigeon on the other, the lark on her hand, and the lamb and the dog by her side, which, indeed, made a droll figure, and so surprised the man that he cried out, "A witch! a witch!" upon this, she laughing, answered, "A conjurer! a conjurer!" and so they parted; but it did not end thus, for a warrant was issued out against Mrs.

Margery, and she was carried to a meeting of the justices, whither all the neighbours followed her.

At the meeting one of the justices, who knew little of life and less of the law, behaved very idly, and though nobody was able to prove anything against her, asked who she could bring to her character? "Who can you bring against my character, sir," says she; "there are people enough who would appear in my defence were it necessary, but I never supposed that anyone here could be so weak as to believe there was any such thing as a witch. If I am a witch this is my charm, and (laying a barometer or weather glass on the table) it is with this," she says, "that I have taught my neighbours to know the state of the weather." All the company laughed, and Sir William Dove, who was on the bench, asked her accusers how they could be such fools as to think there was any such thing as a witch. "It is true," continued he, "many innocent and worthy people have been abused and even murdered on this absurd and foolish supposition, which is a scandal to our religion, to our laws, to our nation, and to common-sense; but I will tell you a story.

"There was in the West of England a poor industrious woman who laboured under the same evil report which this good woman is accused of. Every hog that died with the murrain, every cow that slipt her calf, she was accountable for: If a horse had the staggers she was supposed to be in his head; and whenever the wind blew a little harder than ordinary, Goody Giles¹ was playing her tricks, and riding on a broomstick in the air. These, and a thousand other phantasies too ridiculous to recite, possessed the pates of the common people: horse-shoes were nailed with the heels upwards, and many tricks made use of to mortify the poor creature, and such was their rage against her that they petitioned Mr. Williams, the parson of the parish, not to let her come to church, and at last even insisted upon it: but this he overruled, and allowed the poor old woman a nook in one of the isles to herself, where she muttered over her prayers in the best manner she could. The parish, thus disconcerted and enraged, with-

¹ See note, p. 377, *ante*.—ED.

drew the small pittance they allowed for her support, and would have reduced her to the necessity of starving had she not been still assisted by the benevolent Mr. Williams.

“But I hasten to the sequel of my story, in which you will find that the true source from whence witchcraft springs is poverty, age, and ignorance, and that it is impossible for a woman to pass for a witch unless she is very poor, very old, and lives in a neighbourhood where the people are void of common-sense.¹

“Some time after a brother of hers died in London, who, though he would not part with a farthing while he lived, at his death was obliged to leave her five thousand pounds that he could not carry with him. This altered the face of Jane’s affairs prodigiously: She was no longer Jane, alias Joan Giles, the ugly old witch, but Madam Giles; her old ragged garb was exchanged for one that was new and genteel; her greatest enemies made their court to her, even the justice himself came to wish her joy; and though several hogs and horses died, and the wind frequently blew afterwards, yet Madam Giles was never supposed to have a hand in it; and from hence it is plain, as I observed before, that a woman must be very poor, very old, and live in a neighbourhood where the people are very stupid, before she can possibly pass for a witch.

“’Twas a saying of Mr. Williams, who would sometimes be jocose, and had the art of making even satire agreeable, that if ever Jane deserved the character of a witch it was after this money was left her; for that with her five thousand pounds she did more acts of charity and friendly offices than all the people of fortune within fifty miles of the place.”

After this Sir William inveighed against the absurd and foolish notions which the country people had imbibed concerning witches and witchcraft, and having proved that there was no such thing, but that all were the effects of folly and ignorance, he gave the court such an account of Mrs. Margery and her virtue, good sense, and prudent behaviour, that the gentlemen present were enamoured with

¹ Compare the article on persecution for witchcraft in the ‘Bee’ (at p. 442, vol. ii.), which, however, as we have shown, is only an adaptation by Goldsmith.—ED.

her, and returned her public thanks for the great service she had done the country. One gentleman in particular, I mean Sir Charles Jones,¹ had conceived such an high opinion of her that he offered her a considerable sum to take the care of his family and the education of his daughter, which, however, she refused; but this gentleman, sending for her afterwards when he had a dangerous fit of illness, she went, and behaved so prudently in the family, and so tenderly to him and his daughter, that he would not permit her to leave his house, but soon after made her proposals of marriage. She was truly sensible of the honour he intended her, but, though poor, she would not consent to be made a lady till he had effectually provided for his daughter; for she told him that power was a dangerous thing to be trusted with, and that a good man or woman would never throw themselves into the road of temptation.

All things being settled, and the day fixed, the neighbours came in crowds to see the wedding, for they were all glad that one who had been such a good little girl, and was become such a virtuous and good woman, was going to be made a lady; but just as the clergyman had opened his book, a gentleman, richly dressed, ran into the church, and cried, "Stop! stop!" This greatly alarmed the congregation, particularly the intended bride and bridegroom, whom he first accosted, and desired to speak with them apart. After they had been talking some little time the people were greatly surprised to see Sir Charles stand motionless, and his bride cry and faint away in the stranger's arms. This seeming grief, however, was only a prelude to a flood of joy, which immediately succeeded; for you must know, gentle reader, that this gentleman, so richly dressed and bedizened with lace, was that identical little boy whom you before saw in the sailor's habit; in short, it was little Tom Two-Shoes, Mrs. Margery's brother, who was just come from beyond sea, where he had made a large fortune, and hearing, as soon as he landed, of his sister's intended wedding, had rode post to see that a proper settlement was made on her, which he thought she was now entitled to, as he himself was both able and willing to give her an ample

¹ See note, p. 377, *ante*.—ED.

fortune. They soon returned to the communion table, and were married in tears, but they were tears of joy.

There is something wonderful in this young gentleman's preservation and success in life, which we shall acquaint the reader of in the history of his life and adventures, which will soon be published.¹

CHAPTER VII. AND LAST.

THE TRUE USE OF RICHES.

THE harmony and affection that subsisted between this happy couple is inexpressible; but time, which dissolves the closest union, after six years severed Sir Charles from his lady, for being seized with a violent fever he died and left her full of grief, though possessed of a large fortune.

We forgot to remark that after her marriage Lady Jones (for so we must now call her) ordered the chapel to be fitted up, and allowed the chaplain a considerable sum out of her own private purse to visit the sick, and say prayers every day to all the people that could attend. She also gave Mr. Johnson ten guineas a year to preach a sermon annually on the necessity and duties of the marriage state; and on the decease of Sir Charles, she gave him ten more to preach yearly on the subject of death; she had put all the parish into mourning for the loss of her husband; and to those men who attended this yearly service she gave harvest gloves, to their wives shoes and stockings, and to all the children little books and plum cakes. We must also observe that she herself wove a chaplet of flowers, and before the service placed it on his gravestone, and a suitable psalm was always sung by the congregation.

About this time she heard that Mr. Smith was oppressed by Sir Timothy Gripe, the justice, and his friend Graspall, who endeavoured to deprive him of part of his tythes, upon

¹ The History of Tom Two-Shoes is likewise promised in chap. ii. of part i. (p. 358), and in the Appendix (p. 399). Was this 'History' ever published? We have not found a book so titled in any of the lists of Newbery's children's books we have seen.—ED.

which she, in conjunction with her brother, defended him, and the cause was tried in Westminster Hall, where Mr. Smith gained a verdict; and it appearing that Sir Timothy had behaved most scandalously, as a Justice of the Peace, he was struck off the list, and no longer permitted to act in that capacity. This was a cut to a man of his imperious disposition, and this was followed by one yet more severe; for a relation of his, who had an undoubted right to the Mouldwell estate, finding that it was possible to get the better at law of a rich man, laid claim to it, brought his action, and recovered the whole manor of Mouldwell; and being afterwards inclined to sell it, he, in consideration of the aid Lady Margery had lent him during his distress, made her the first offer, and she purchased the whole and threw it into different farms, that the poor might be no longer under the dominion of two over-grown men.

This was a great mortification to Sir Timothy, as well as to his friend Graspall, who from this time experienced nothing but misfortunes, and was in a few years so dispossessed of his illgotten wealth, that his family were reduced to seek subsistence from the parish, at which those who had felt the weight of his iron hand rejoiced; but Lady Margery desired that his children might be treated with care and tenderness; "for they," says she, "are no ways accountable for the actions of their father."

At her first coming into power, she took care to gratify her old friends, especially Mr. and Mrs. Smith, whose family she made happy. She paid great regard to the poor, made their interest her own, and to induce them to come regularly to church, she ordered a loaf, or the price of a loaf, to be given to every one who would accept of it. This brought many of them to church, who by degrees learned their duty, and then came on a more noble principle. She also took care to encourage matrimony; and in order to induce her tenants and neighbours to enter into that happy state, she always gave the young couple something towards housekeeping; and stood godmother to all their children, whom she had in parties, every Sunday evening, to teach them their Catechism, and lecture them in religion and morality; after which she treated them with a supper, gave them such books as they wanted, and then

despatched them with her blessing. Nor did she forget them at her death, but left each a legacy, as will be seen among other charitable donations when we publish her will, which we may do in some future volume. There is one request, however, so singular, that we cannot help taking notice of it in this place, which is, that of her giving so many acres of land to be planted yearly with potatoes, for all the poor of any parish who would come and fetch them for the use of their families; but if any took them to sell they were deprived of that privilege ever after. And these roots were planted and raised from the rent arising from a farm which she had assigned over for that purpose. In short, she was a mother to the poor, a physician to the sick, and a friend to all who were in distress. Her life was the greatest blessing, and her death the greatest calamity that ever was felt in the neighbourhood. A monument, but without inscription, was erected to her memory in the churchyard, over which the poor as they pass weep continually, so that the stone is ever bathed in tears.

On this occasion the following lines were spoken extempore by a young gentleman:—

How vain the tears that fall from you,
And here supply the place of dew!
How vain to weep the happy dead,
Who now to heavenly realms are fled!
Repine no more, your plaints forbear,
And all prepare to meet them there.

THE END.¹

¹ “The end” being here indicated, it seems probable that the next Appendix, &c., were not in the first edition. It may be that these “Appendix” chapters are part of Goldsmith’s additions to the book. They are a good deal in our author’s manner.—ED.

APPENDIX.

THE GOLDEN DREAM, OR THE INGENUOUS CONFESSION.

To show the depravity of human nature, and how apt the mind is to be misled by trinkets and false appearances, Mrs. Two-Shoes does acknowledge that after she became rich, she had like to have been too fond of money; for on seeing her husband receive a very large sum, her heart went pit-pat, pit-pat all the evening, and she began to think that guineas were pretty things. To suppress this turbulence of mind, which was a symptom of approaching avarice, she said her prayers earlier than usual, and at night had the following dream, which I shall relate in her own words:—

“Methought, as I slept, a genii stepped up to me with a French commode,¹ which having placed on my head, he said, ‘Now go and be happy, for from henceforth every thing you touch shall turn to gold.’ Willing to try the experiment, I gently touched the bed-post and furniture, which immediately became massy gold, burnished, and of surprising brightness. I then touched the walls of the house, which assumed the same appearance, and looked amazingly magnificent. Elated with this wonderful gift, I rang hastily for my maid to carry the joyful news to her master, who, as I thought, was then walking in the garden. Sukey came, but in the extacy I was in, happening to touch her hand, she became instantly an immoveable statue. ‘Go,’ said I, ‘and call your master;’ but she made no reply, nor could she stir. Upon this I shrieked, and in

¹ A lady’s head-dress of the period.—ED.

came my dear husband, whom I ran to embrace, when no sooner had I touched him, but he became good for nothing—that is, good for nothing but his weight in gold; and that you know could be nothing, where gold was so plenty. At this instant up came another servant with a glass of water, thinking me ill; this I attempted to swallow, but no sooner did it touch my mouth than it became a hard, solid body, and unfit for drinking. My distress now grew insupportable! I had destroyed, as I thought, my dear husband, and my favourite servant; and I plainly perceived that I should die for want in the midst of so much wealth. ‘Ah,’ said I, ‘why did I long for riches! Having enough already, why did I covet more?’ Thus terrified, I began to rave and beat my breast, which awoke Sir Charles, who kindly called me from this state of inquietude, and composed my mind.”

This scene I have often considered as a lesson, instructing me that a load of riches bring, instead of felicity, a load of troubles; and that the only source of happiness is contentment. Go, therefore, you who have too much, and give it to those who are in want, so shall you be happy yourselves, by making others happy. This is a precept from the Almighty, a precept which must be regarded, for *The Lord is about your paths, and about your bed, and spieth out all your ways.*

AN ANECDOTE RESPECTING TOM TWO-SHOES, COMMUNICATED
BY A GENTLEMAN WHO IS NOW WRITING THE HISTORY
OF HIS LIFE.

It is generally known that Tom Two-Shoes went to sea when he was a very little boy, and very poor; and that he returned a very great man, and very rich; but no one knows how he acquired so much wealth but myself and a few friends, who have perused the papers from which I am compiling the History of his Life.¹

After Tom had been at sea some years, he was unfortunately cast away on that part of the Coast of Africa

¹ See note at p. 395, *ante*.—ED.

inhabited by the Hottentots. Here he met with a strange book, which the Hottentots did not understand, and which gave him some account of Prester John's country; and being a lad of great curiosity and resolution he determined to see it. Accordingly he set out on the pursuit, attended by a young lion, which he had tamed and made so fond of him, that he followed him like a dog, and obeyed all his commands; and indeed it was happy for him that he had such a companion, for as his road lay through large woods and forests that were full of wild beasts and without inhabitants, he must have been soon starved or torn in pieces, had he not been both fed and protected by this noble animal.

Tom had provided himself with two guns, a sword, and as much powder and ball as he could carry; with these arms, and such a companion, it was mighty easy for him to get food, for the animals in these wild and extensive forests, having never seen the effects of a gun, readily ran from the lion, who hunted on one side, to Tom, who hunted on the other, so that they were either caught by the lion, or shot by his master; and it was pleasant enough, after a hunting match, and the meat was dressed, to see how cheek by jowl they sat down to dinner.

When they came into the Land of Utopia, he discovered the statue of a man erected on an open plain, which had this inscription on the pedestal: "On May-day in the morning, when the sun rises, I shall have a head of gold." As it was now the latter end of April, he stayed to see this wonderful change; and in the mean time, inquiring of a poor shepherd what was the reason of the statue being erected there, and with that inscription, he was informed that it was set up many years ago by an Arabian philosopher, who travelled all the world over in search of a real friend; that he lived with, and was extremely fond of a great man who inhabited the next mountain; but that on some occasion they quarrelled, and the philosopher, leaving the mountain, retired into the plain, where he erected this statue with his own hands, and soon after died. To this he added, that all the people for many leagues round came there every May morning, expecting to see the stone-head turned to gold.

Tom got up very early on the first of May to behold this amazing change, and when he came near the statue he saw a number of people, who all ran away from him in the utmost consternation, having never before seen a lion follow a man like a lap-dog. Being thus left alone, he fixed his eyes on the sun, then rising with resplendent majesty, and afterwards turned to the statue, but could see no change in the stone. "Surely," says he to himself, "there is some mystical meaning in this! This inscription must be an enigma, the hidden meaning of which I will endeavour to find, for a philosopher would never expect a stone to be turned to gold." Accordingly he measured the length of the shadow which the statue gave on the ground by the sun shining on it, and marked that particular part where the head fell, then getting a chop-ness (a thing like a spade) and digging, he discovered a copper-chest, full of gold, with this inscription engraved on the lid of it:—

"Thy wit,
 Oh man! whoever thou art,
 Hath disclos'd the ænigma,
 And discovered the Golden Head.
 Take it and use it,
 But use it with wisdom;
 For know,
 That gold, properly employ'd,
 May dispense blessings,
 And promote the happiness of mortals;
 But when hoarded up,
 Or misapply'd,
 Is but trash, that makes mankind miserable.
 Remember
 The unprofitable servant,
 Who hid his 'talent' in a napkin;
 And
 The profligate son,
 Who squander'd away his substance and fed with the swine.
 As thou hast got the Golden Head,
 Observe the 'golden mean,'
 Be good and be happy."

This lesson, coming as it were from the dead, struck him with such awe and reverence for piety and virtue, that before he removed the treasure, he kneeled down, and earnestly and fervently prayed that he might make a prudent, just, and proper use of it. He then conveyed the

chest away ; but how he got it to England, the reader will be informed in the history of his life. It may not be improper, however, in this place, to give the reader some account of the philosopher who hid this treasure, and took so much pains to find a true and real friend to enjoy it. As Tom had reason to venerate his memory, he was very particular in his enquiry, and had this character of him :— That he was a man well acquainted with nature and with trade ; that he was pious, friendly, and of a sweet and affable disposition. That he had acquired a fortune by commerce, and having no relations to leave it to, he travelled through Arabia, Persia, India, Libya and Utopia in search of a real friend. In this pursuit he found several with whom he exchanged good offices, and that were polite and obliging, but they often flew off for trifles, or as soon as he pretended to be in distress, and requested their assistance, left him to struggle with his own difficulties. So true is that copy in our books, which says, “Adversity is the touchstone of friendship.” At last, however, he met with the Utopian Philosopher, or the Wise Man of the Mountain, as he is called, and thought in him he had found the friend he wanted, for though he often pretended to be in distress, and abandoned to the frowns of fortune, this man always relieved him, and with such cheerfulness and sincerity, that, concluding he had found out the only man to whom he ought to open both his purse and his heart, he let him so far into his secret as to desire his assistance in hiding a large sum of money, which he wanted to conceal, lest the prince of the country, who was absolute, should, by the advice of his wicked minister, put him to death for his gold. The two philosophers met and hid the money, which the stranger, after some days, went to see, but found it gone. How was he struck to the heart when he found that his friend, whom he had often tried, and who had relieved him in his distress, could not withstand this temptation, but broke through the sacred bonds of friendship, and turned even a thief for gold which he did not want, as he was already very rich ! “Oh !” said he, “what is the heart of man made of ? Why am I condemned to live among people who have no sincerity, and who barter the most sacred ties of friendship

and humanity for the dirt that we tread on? Had I lost my gold and found a real friend, I should have been happy with the exchange, but now I am most miserable." After some time he wiped off his tears, and being determined not to be so imposed on, he had recourse to cunning and the arts of life. He went to his pretended friend with a cheerful countenance, told him he had more gold to hide, and desired him to appoint a time when they might go together, and open the earth to put it into the same pot. The other, in hopes of getting more wealth, appointed the next evening. They went together, opened the ground, and found the money they had first placed there, for the artful wretch he so much confided in, had conveyed it again into the pot, in order to obtain more. Our philosopher immediately took the gold, and putting it into his pocket, told the other he had now altered his mind, and should bury it no more till he found a man more worthy of his confidence. See what people lose by being dishonest! This calls to my mind the words of the poet:—

"A wit's a feather, and a chief's a rod,
An honest man's the noblest work of God."

Remember this story, and take care whom you trust; but don't be covetous, sordid and miserable, for the gold we have is but lent us to do good with. We received all from the hand of God, and every person in distress hath a just title to a portion of it.

A LETTER FROM THE PRINTER, WHICH HE DESIRES MAY
BE INSERTED.

"SIR,

"I have done with your copy, so you may return it to the Vatican, if you please; and pray tell Mr. Angelo to brush up the cuts, that, in the next edition, they may give us a good impression.

"The foresight and sagacity of Mrs. Margery's dog calls to my mind a circumstance which happened when I was a boy. Some gentlemen in the place where I lived had been hunting, and were got under a great tree to shelter themselves from a thunderstorm, when a dog that always followed one of the gentlemen leaped up his horse several times, and then ran away and barked. At last, the gen-

tllemen all followed to see what he would be at ; and they were no sooner gone from the tree, but it was shivered in pieces by lightning ! It is remarkable, that as soon as they came from the tree the dog appeared to be very well satisfied, and barked no more. The gentleman after this always regarded the dog as his friend, treated him in his old age with great tenderness, and fed him with milk as long as he lived.

“ My old master Grierson had also a dog, that ought to be mentioned with regard, for he used to set him up as a pattern of sagacity and prudence, not only to his journey-men, but to the whole neighbours. This dog had been taught a thousand tricks, and among other feats he could dance, tumble, and drink wine and punch till he was little better than mad. It happened one day, when the men had made him drunk with liquor, and he was capering about, that he fell into a large vessel of boiling water. They soon got him out, and he recovered ; but he was very much hurt, and being sensible that this accident arose from his losing his senses by drinking, he would never taste any strong liquor afterwards. My old master, on relating this story, and showing the dog, used to address us thus : ‘ Ah, my friends, had you but half the sense of this poor dog here, you would never get fuddled, and be fools.’

“ I am, Sir yours, &c.,

“ W. B.” ¹

¹ This Letter, though purporting to be by “the printer,” is most likely by the author, or one of the authors. Nevertheless, it may be noted that “ W. B.” are the initials of W. Bristow, who published the *Public Ledger*, the ‘Cock-Lane Ghost’ pamphlet, and other things for John Newbery. See notes on “ W. B.” and W. Bristow elsewhere. The name Grierson in this letter may be a clue on the point. George Grierson was the “ King’s printer ” in Dublin from 1732, and the office remained in his family for several generations. One of the Griersons, apparently George’s son, was a friend of Dr. Johnson: *vide* Boswell. Taking “ W. B.” therefore, as the real initials of the writer (whether W. Bristow or another), the letter may be genuine as that of “the printer,” and said “printer” may really have served as apprentice or workman to Grierson of Dublin. On the other hand, Goldsmith was in Dublin in Grierson’s time, and so varied were his fortunes even then that he may have had reason for calling Grierson his “master.” That is to say, he may have worked in some capacity in the Dublin printing-office of George Grierson, as it is pretty well certain he afterwards worked in the London printing-office of Samuel Richardson.—ED.

APPENDIX TO THIS VOLUME.

I. 'GOODY TWO-SHOES' AND OTHER CHILDREN'S BOOKS, AND THE THREE NEWBERYS.

IN addition to what has been said upon the children's books attributed to Goldsmith (*ante*, p. 350, &c., and *post*, p. 411), the following notes may be acceptable.

Mr. Charles Welsh found the following announcement of 'Goody Two-Shoes' and others of John Newbery's series of children's books in the *London Chronicle* of Dec. 19—Jan. 1, 1764-5.

"The Philosophers, Politicians, Necromancers, and the Learned in every Family are desired to observe that on the 1st of January, being New Year's Day (Oh, that we may all lead new Lives!), Mr. Newbery intends to publish the following important volumes, bound and gilt, and hereby invites all his little friends who are good to call for them at the Bible and Sun, in St. Paul's Churchyard: but those who are naughty are to have none.

"1. The Renowned History of Giles Gingerbread: a little boy who lived upon learning.

"2. The Easter Gift; or the way to be good; a book much wanted.

"3. The Whitsuntide Gift: or the way to be happy; a book very necessary for all families.

"4. The Valentine Gift: or how to behave with honour, integrity, and humanity; very useful with a Trading Nation.¹

"5. The Fairing: or a golden present for children. In which they can see all the fun of the fair, and at home be as happy as if they were there; a Book of great consequence to all whom it may concern.

"We are also desired to give notice that there is in the Press, and speedily will be published, either by subscription or otherwise as the Public shall please to determine, the History of Little Goody Two Shoes, otherwise called Margery Two Shoes. Printed and sold at the Bible and Sun in St. Paul's Churchyard, where may be had all Mr. Newbery's little books for the children and youth of these kingdoms and the colonies. New editions of those which were out of print are now republished.

"The publication of the Lilliputian System of Politics is postponed till the meeting of Parliament. This work, which will be replete with cuts and characters, is not intended to exalt or depress any particular

¹ See the reference to 'Thoughts upon Trade' in the next page.—ED.

country, to support the pride of any particular family, or to feed the folly of any particular party, but to stimulate the mind to virtue, to promote universal benevolence, to make mankind happy.¹ Those who would know more of the matter may enquire of Mr. Newbery."² This as well as some others of Newbery's advertisements of about this date may well have been in part written by Goldsmith, though, for the reasons elsewhere stated, we incline to think that the above books themselves, excepting, perhaps, 'Goody Two-Shoes,' or, more likely still, its Introduction, are not by our author.

In the *Public Ledger* of Sept. 6, 18, and 19, 1760, is an article entitled 'Thoughts upon Trade.' It is evidently an extract from some other publication, and at the end of the third instalment we find a note thus.— "[We could proceed much farther with this judicious writer, but as it is not generous to copy the *whole*, we refer the curious reader, for ampler satisfaction, to a certain gentleman in St. Paul's Churchyard, who deals in sundry pretty things *fit for children six feet high*.]" The occurrence here of the phrase "fit for children six feet high," (which seems modelled on a frequent line in the advertisements of Newbery's children's books—"ladies and gentlemen three feet high,") and this in italics too, helps to bear out our supposition that Newbery is alluded to in the passage at *ante*, p. 356, where the same phrase is used, and also tends, we think, to show that Newbery was the author of the work on Trade extracted from in the *Ledger*, and therefore was something of a political economist of Goldsmith's way of thinking, as shown in the 'Deserted Village,' &c. Now, if John Newbery held such views, and wrote upon them, it seems likely enough that he, after all, wrote the story of 'Goody Two-Shoes,' and got Goldsmith to write the "Introduction."³

The series of children's books with which the fame of good old John Newbery is more particularly associated—and that in no small degree through Goldsmith's genial reference to him as "the philanthropic book-

¹ This about "party," "universal benevolence," &c., is very like Goldsmith.—ED.

² From Mr. Welsh's interesting introduction to his facsimile reprint of the 1766 edition of 'Goody Two-Shoes.'—ED.

³ John Newbery's character opening up more and more, and the probability of his being the real, or chief, author of 'Goody Two-Shoes,' &c., seeming to increase as we proceed in the examination of his children's books, it may be fit that we here edge in an hitherto omitted testimony to the worth of the man by our author, Goldsmith. The account of the "philanthropic bookseller" in chap. xviii. of the 'Vicar' is well known. The following is a companion panegyric from the same pen:—

"What we say of a thing which is just come in fashion,
And that which we do with the dead,
Is the name of the honestest man in the nation:
What more of a man can be said?"

This riddle, the "answer" to which is sufficiently obvious, is from the narrative of Mrs. Lawder (Goldsmith's cousin). We quote it from Forster's 'Life and Times of Goldsmith,' 2nd ed., vol. ii., p. 365.—ED.

seller of St. Paul's Churchyard, who has written so many books for children," and who "called himself their friend, but was the friend of all mankind," &c. ('Vicar of Wakefield,' chap. xviii.), these children's books, we say, are commonly supposed to have been first published at the house at the corner of St. Paul's Churchyard; but in reality they were first published at No. 65, St. Paul's Churchyard, formerly the "Bible and Sun," situated, as Newbery's old advertisements often put it, "opposite the North door of the Church." The error has no doubt arisen partly from the fact that Newbery had a house at or near the Ludgate Hill corner of the churchyard, as well as at No. 65, and partly from the additional fact that while the corner house has adhered to the tradition, so to speak, of Newbery's original house as a purveyor of books for children, the house No. 65 has long ceased to be at all representative of John Newbery and his most famous line of business. It seems that after John Newbery's death, in 1767, his business was divided between his only son Francis and another Francis his nephew. The latter had been in business before, and apparently to some extent in partnership with his uncle. This partnership of nephew and uncle was carried on in Paternoster Row, and under it Francis Newbery the nephew had the good fortune to be, in 1766, ostensibly the publisher of the first edition of the 'Vicar of Wakefield.' After John Newbery's death, Francis Newbery the nephew, seems to have set up his share of the Newbery business in the house at the corner of St. Paul's Churchyard, while Francis Newbery the son, carried on his share in the house No. 65 St. Paul's Churchyard. Very soon the two houses appear not only as divided, but as in opposition. This is shown by such announcements as the following: a book is advertised as "Printed for T. Carnan [T. Carnan was brother-in-law to Francis the son] and F. Newbery, Junr., at 65, in St. Paul's Churchyard, near the bar." . . . "not for F. Newbery at the corner of Ludgate Hill, who has no share in the late Mr. John Newbery's books." Again, in relation to "Dr. James's Powder," one of the patent medicines the vending of which no doubt formed a most valuable portion of John Newbery's property: "Francis Newbery junior (only son of the late Mr. John Newbery, who bequeathed his property in and sole right of vending the said Powder to his said son alone), at 65, the Bible and Sun, on the side of St. Paul's Churchyard, where foot-passengers pass, nearly opposite the North door of the Church," (*vide London Chronicle*, April 1, 1773). Francis Newbery, junr's., business at No. 65, after being Carnan and Newbery's—that is after Carnan's death in 1788—came to have the style, "F. Power, successor to T. Carnan, 65 St. Paul's Churchyard," or as another imprint has it, "Francis Power and Co." (grandson to the late Mr. J. Newbery), 65 St. Paul's Churchyard; and a few years later, it seems to have died out as a publisher's, most of its books passing, whether by succession or by sale does not appear, to E. Newbery, who then was the representative of Newbery the nephew's business at the corner of St. Paul's Churchyard. This latter house then acquired a great accession of strength in the hands of Mr. John Harris, who published another series of children's books (the famous 'Butterflies' Ball,' &c.), which became as popular as had been the series of John Newbery two generations before. In this way Harris's business (Newbery and Harris's at first), the successor of the nephew's branch of the

original house of Newbery, became in a sense the successor to old John Newbery's children's book business, though, as we have shown, Harris's business was not carried on in the house or upon the site whence Newbery's children's books were originally published. The present No. 65 St. Paul's Churchyard stands on the site of Newbery's house so numbered, which was the original home of 'Tommy Trip,' and 'Goody Two-Shoes,' and 'Giles Gingerbread,' and all the other delightful little "histories" of Goldsmith's "philanthropic bookseller." It is now, and has been for more than fifty years past, we believe, part of the premises of the Religious Tract Society. For more on this point, see *Notes and Queries*, 6th Series xi. p. 455 (June 1885). To continue the story of the direct line (as it may be called) of the Newbery business down to the present day, we need only add that when the combined publishing and medicine-vending business at 65 St. Paul's Churchyard broke up, in the time of "Francis Power and Co. (grandson to the late J. Newbery)," &c., as above narrated, or a little later, that branch of the house seems to have resolved to confine itself to patent medicines. Accordingly, as late as about 1840, we still find the firm of "F. Newbery and Son, Wholesale Medicine Warehouse," in St. Paul's Churchyard, but removed to No. 45, between St. Paul's School and Cheapside. In 1874 we find the firm located and described thus:—"Francis Newbery and Sons, export and wholesale medicine proprietors and merchants, 37 Newgate Street, established 1746;" and at the present time (1885) the same house, unmistakably, yet again a little removed, is described in the Post Office Directory as of "1 King Edward Street, Newgate Street, 125 years in St. Paul's Churchyard." There is, to be sure, an apparent discrepancy between "established 1746" in the last extract but one, and "125 years in St. Paul's Churchyard." John Newbery's business was certainly established before 1746. Supposing the Newbery medicine business finally quitted St. Paul's Churchyard about 1855, "125 years in St. Paul's Churchyard" would seem to be nearer the mark, and would show the date at which old John Newbery first opened shop in St. Paul's Churchyard to be about 1735, which we believe is in agreement with the date assigned to that event by Mr. Charles Welsh, of the firm of Griffith, Farran, Okeden, and Welsh, who are the successors to the Newbery business at the corner of St. Paul's Churchyard.¹—ED.

II. A NOTE OF OMISSIONS.

A few pieces that have appeared in some editions of Goldsmith's works are purposely omitted from the present edition. They include:—

I. 'Female Characters.' This essay was given in Prior's 1837 edition of the Works, and again in Cunningham's 1854 edition. In July 1883,

¹ Since the above was written Mr. Charles Welsh tells us that John Newbery set up in St. Paul's Churchyard in 1745, but for some two years before he had a shop in the Strand, near Devereux Court. For more concerning the Newberys we may confidently refer the reader to Mr. Welsh's forthcoming history of the founder of the famous St. Paul's Churchyard publishing house, which, we believe, is to be entitled, 'A Bookseller of the Last Century.'—ED.

a correspondent of the *Athenæum*, "W. H. O.," pointed out that this essay appeared in 1737 in the periodical paper called *Common Sense*, and was hence, probably, by Lord Chesterfield. Having found 'Female Characters' in *Common Sense*, as so indicated by "W. H. O.," we have excluded it from the present edition. It clearly cannot be by Goldsmith, who in 1737 was but nine years old. *Common Sense* (the title was afterwards used by "Tom" Paine) was a paper apparently owned by Lords Chesterfield and Lyttelton, and chiefly written by them in conjunction with C. Molloy. "W. H. O.'s" useful exposure of the fact that 'Female Characters' is not by our author, was accompanied by a charge of "plagiarism" against him on account of the inclusion of this essay in his 'Works.' It is clear, however, that as the essay in question did not appear as a work of Goldsmith until some sixty years after Goldsmith's death (for Prior seems to have been the first to publish 'Female Characters' as by our author), he can no more fairly be charged with appropriating the essay than could Shakspeare be charged with "plagiarism" were some new Ireland to find and foist into Shakspeare's 'Works' a new play. Since writing upon this subject at p. 416, of our vol. iv., we have found that 'Female Characters' did not appear in Wright and Reed's collection of Goldsmith's 'Essays and Criticisms,' 1798 (as stated at p. 416, vol. iv.). The blunder of including the essay in our author's works seems, therefore, as we have said above, to lie with Sir James Prior.

II. The 'Epitaph' on Zachary Bayly. This Mr. Cunningham published in his edition of the 'Works,' stating simply that it was given in the *Gentleman's Magazine* of 1781 (p. 39) as by Goldsmith. The statement is correct, so far. In the very next number of the *Gentleman's Magazine*, however, the editor had a note saying: "The Epitaph in Jamaica, p. 39, we find was by Dr. Hawkesworth." This correction, we suppose, Mr. Cunningham overlooked, as he must also have overlooked a subsequent treatment of the matter (*Gents. Mag.* 1784, p. 733) in the shape of a circumstantial letter, dated Jamaica, and giving a corrected version of the Epitaph and an account, apparently authoritative, showing Hawkesworth to be the author.

III. The alleged 'Hudibrastic verse' by Goldsmith. This was put forth principally by Mr. J. Yeowell, of Islington (*Notes and Queries*, 3rd Series, vol. iv., p. 61). It was claimed, that, as the well-known lines—

"For he who fights and runs away
May live to fight another day;
But he who is in battle slain
Can never rise to fight again,"

were clearly not Butler's, though usually attributed to him, that poet's rendering of the idea being given in *two* lines, thus—

"For those that fly may fight again,
Which he can never do that's slain."

Hudibras, part ii. cant. 3,

the above four, and perhaps really the best known, lines were a paraphrase by Goldsmith, they having appeared in a selection from 'Hudibras' in the 'Art of Poetry,' a collection by Newbery which (it was alleged) Goldsmith had edited. Now we have found those same four

lines in an edition of the 'Art of Poetry' (Newbery published many editions of that work) dated 1746. In that year Goldsmith was but eighteen, and was at home, in Ireland, and hardly dreaming, as yet, of writing for Newbery. Moreover, we have seen these same four lines in Ray's 'History of the Rebellion,' 1750, p. 48, where they appear as if quoted, though whence is not indicated. In 1750, Goldsmith had not quitted his native Ireland.

IV. The *Morning Chronicle* 'Lines' attributed to Goldsmith. This short poem has been given in several editions of Goldsmith's works with the meagre statement that it appeared so attributed to our author in the *Morning Chronicle* of April 3, 1800. Prior thought this statement and the internal evidence offered by the poem itself quite insufficient to warrant us in accepting it as a work by Goldsmith. We have ventured to think so too. The contributor of the 'Lines' to the *Morning Chronicle* sent with them a note signed "D," but who "D" was has never been ascertained.

V. Other attributed poems. Sir James Prior gave in his 'Life of Goldsmith' (1837, vol. ii, pp. 209-217) several pieces of poetry attributed to Goldsmith. We have omitted all these but two, those given at p. 505, vol. iv. The omitted pieces are the *Morning Chronicle* lines just mentioned; 'The Fair Thief,' which is also said to be by Charles Wyndham, Earl of Egremont; and 'Verses: addressed to a Friend in 1769,' from an Irish magazine (Exshaw's, Prior believed) of 1774. For their authenticity, as for the two pieces we have given, Sir James Prior thought there was but little evidence. See the note at p. 505 of our vol. iv.

VI. An Addition to the Bunbury 'Letter in Prose and Verse.' In the *Academy* of Nov. 22, 1884, Mr. Ernest Radford announced the discovery of what he thought might be two lines of verse by Goldsmith forming an additional conclusion to the verse portion of the 'Letter in Prose and Verse to Mrs. Bunbury' (Poems, vol. ii. p. 106). The discovery was thus set forth by Mr. Radford: "In the Plymouth Public Library is a folio lettered 'Drawings and Correspondence of James Northcote, R.A.,' which contains, besides other matters of interest, a MS. version of this letter and poem. It is written on paper, of which the watermark is "Creswick 1819," and has some corrections in Northcote's hand. Mrs. Horneck, the mother of 'Little Comedy,' and the 'Jessamy Bride,' was once known as the 'Plymouth Beauty,' a circumstance which may account (apart from the fact that Northcote knew the daughters) for its presence in the volume. This version differs in no way from that which we find in Mr. Forster's Biography, excepting that it contains an additional final couplet, which has every appearance of being genuine:—

'The judge takes the hint, having seen what we drive at,
And dismisses them both with correction in private!'

This appears so excellent a conclusion that I should be glad to see its genuineness established."

Now it seems to us that the evidence we have with regard to the poem in question—evidence, too, for the most part from the source also indicated by Mr. Radford, viz., the collections of Northcote and his and Gold-

smith's friends the Bunburys and the Gwyns—is against rather than for the theory that the two additional lines are by Goldsmith. We have stated the pedigree of the poem at p. 106, vol. ii.; and it seems to us that Sir Henry Bunbury, who first gave, through Prior, the poem from the MS. (Bunbury was the son of the Mrs. Bunbury to whom the poem-letter was addressed), would hardly have omitted the last two lines. Or if they were omitted in his first publication, 1837, he would surely have corrected his mistake in his next publication, 1838, or had it corrected for him by, for one, his kinswoman Mrs. Gwyn, Goldsmith's own "Jes-samy bride," then still living. Nevertheless, accidents will happen, and the two lines *may* have got detached by some oversight; or, more likely still, if the lines are genuine, they may have been added by our author to a copy of the original poem, or may even have been uttered by word of mouth only, and have been then, or from subsequent recollection, taken down. The latter suppositions, however, must still be accompanied by the theory that the circumstance, whatever its particulars, had been altogether forgotten by all the Bunburys at the time of the first publication of the 'Letter in Prose and Verse,' and even later, say up to 1840, the date of the death of Mrs. Gwyn. But the Gwyn and Bunbury archives may have more concerning, and, perhaps, *by*, Goldsmith than has yet been disclosed, and that which is to come may include additional light upon Mr. Radford's "find," which we certainly think, with that gentleman, is "so excellent a conclusion" to the poem, that we, as well as he, "should be glad to see its genuineness established."

VII. Newbery's Children's books. Mr. Charles Welsh, Mr. Pearson, and others have entertained the idea that many of these excellent and famous little books were wholly or in part written by Goldsmith. In the preface to his reprint of 'Goody Two-Shoes,' 1881, Mr. Welsh says,—"I was struck while perusing them with a distinct literary flavour, so to speak, which appeared to be common to a group of little volumes, all published about the same period. These were: 'Goody Two-Shoes,' 'Giles Gingerbread,' 'Tom Thumb's Folio,' 'The Lilliputian Magazine,' 'The Lilliputian Masquerade,' 'The Easter Gift,' 'A Pretty Plaything,' 'The Fairing,' 'Be Merry and Wise,' 'The Valentine's Gift,' 'Pretty Poems for the Amusement of Children Three Feet High,' 'A Pretty Book of Pictures,' 'Tom Telescope,' and a few others." Mr. Welsh adds:—"Now one of this group, 'The Lilliputian Magazine,' is attributed in the British Museum Catalogue to Oliver Goldsmith;¹ and so strong is the family likeness in all the books I have mentioned, that I cannot but believe they are all by the same hand—a belief which I think will be shared by any one who will take the trouble to compare them carefully." But, excepting 'Goody Two-Shoes,' which we republish in the present volume, and remark upon in its place (see *ante*, pp. 350 and 356, and also in this Appendix, art. i.), we think most of these little books and the above quoted theory of their authorship are disposed of by what we have found with regard to one of their number, viz., the 'Lilliputian Magazine,' especially cited by

¹ The Museum catalogues queries the matter, thus:—" [Ed. by O. Goldsmith ?] ", as it does the date, thus:—" [1752 ?]."—ED.

Mr. Welsh. We have found that the 'Lilliputian Magazine' in the British Museum was published about 1752. There is no date to the imprint, but "July 3, 1752" in a semi-editorial article at the end of the book sufficiently indicates the date. In 1752 Goldsmith was a medical student at Edinburgh, and had not yet seen London, or, probably, thought of writing for Newbery. Most of the other books of the group being, as Mr. Welsh says, and as we think, of "about the same period," they also must be deemed to date before Goldsmith's time.

VIII. 'The Art of Poetry.' This is another of Newbery's publications which has been attributed to Goldsmith by, among others, Mr. Forster, the late Mr. Crossley, and Mr. Yeowell; but our discovery, as set forth in No. III. of the present article (p. 409) of an edition of the 'Art of Poetry,' dated 1746, when our author was but eighteen, and had not left Ireland, will, we suppose, dispose of the theory. It, of course, may be said that Goldsmith might have edited a later issue of the book. This may have been so; but comparing the 1762 edition, the edition which Messrs. Crossley and Yeowell more particularly attributed to Goldsmith, and which figures in the Catalogue of the British Museum as "attributed to Oliver Goldsmith," with the above mentioned 1746 edition we find both almost word for word alike.

IX. Omission of Pieces given in Thomas Wright's collection of 'Essays and Criticisms,' 1798. The unused essays, &c., of this collection—sometimes termed the Wright and Reed collection—might have been included in this edition but for the want of room. They were omitted, and no reason given for the omission, by Prior and Cunningham; and, indeed, they have never been reprinted since the date of Wright's book, three years anterior to the publication of Bishop Percy's edition of the Works, 1801. They appear, however, to be as worthy of republication, and quite as likely to be authentic, as most of the pieces from the same collection which have been reprinted. Being unable to include these pieces in the present edition, as we have said, and having traced them (all but one) to where they first appeared in print (Wright's book omitted to give the places of original publication), a statement concerning them may here be useful.

Wright's three 12mo. volumes are entitled,—'Essays and Criticisms, by Dr. Goldsmith, now first collected: with an Account of the Author.' "Essay I.," in vol. i., is entitled, in the contents table, "Character of Lord Chatham." This essay we find is from number one of the *British Magazine*, Jan. 1760, where, however, it bears not Chatham's name, but has the heading "*A Parallel between the Gracchi and the Greatest Man of the Present Age.*" A foot-note in the reprint gives the statesman's name thus.—"The Right Hon. William Pitt, Esq., then one of his Majesty's principal Secretaries of State, and afterwards created Earl of Chatham, father of the present Chancellor of the Exchequer." At the end of the "Character" in the reprint is an extract from the "Dedication" to Mr. Pitt which adorns the first volume of the *British Magazine*, which we are told in another footnote is by Dr. Smollett, and "may serve to complete the Parallel, which some readers may perhaps think would seem to conclude rather abruptly." "Essay II." is "Omrah: the Happy Moslem; an Eastern Allegorical Tale." This we found

running through three numbers of the *British Magazine*, Jan.-March, 1760, where it has for title :—"The History of Omrah, the Son of Abul-faid. An Oriental Tale." "Essay III." is "Sibbersik and Igluka : a Burlesque Greenland Tale." It is in the May, 1760, *British Magazine*, where, however, the word "burlesque" has no place in the title. "Essay IV." is "Alcanor and Eudasia : a Tale." This is also in the *British Magazine* for May, 1760; but there it has the form of a letter, "To the Authors," dated "Dorsetshire, April 28, 1760," and headed "The History of Alcanor and Eudasia." "Essay VI." is on "True Politeness," though in the *British Magazine* for August, 1760, where it first appeared, it has the letter form and a heading as being "On Pride." The magazine text, moreover, has the signature "W. S."¹ "Essay VII." is on "Instinct and Reason." It is in the *British Magazine* for Dec. 1760, as "An Essay on Instinct." "Essay VIII." is on "Physiognomy." It is in the Sept. and Oct. *British Magazine*, 1760, where the heading of the second portion shows that it is chiefly from "the Jesuit Nicetus." "Essay IX." is on "Fascination." Its subject is the "evil-eye." It appeared in the *British Magazine* for Dec. 1760, where the title sets it forth as "translated from the Spanish of the celebrated Padre Feijoo." "Essay VII." in vol. ii. is said in the contents table to be on "Filial Ingratitude," and it is the only piece of this collection which we have been unable to trace to its original print. The other essays, &c., will all be found in the present edition of Goldsmith, some in the 'Essays' in vol. i., and the remainder in the 'Later Collected Essays' of vol. iv.

The Criticisms given in Wright's vol. ii. number ten only. They are all from the *Critical Review*, and are all included in our vol. iv., save that "On Massinger's Works," which, however, will be found mentioned at pp. 410, 455, vol. iv. The *Critical Review* was published by Archibald Hamilton, whose printing partner, during the latter part of his life, was Thomas Wright, the collector of these pieces. Hamilton died in 1793. See p. 410, vol. iv.

Concerning this Wright's edition of the 'Essays and Criticisms' there seems to be some degree of mystery. In the first place, the editing of the book—which bears no name save that of Goldsmith upon its title-page, and only has Wright's name as that of the then dead collector in its Preface—is variously attributed to Isaac Reed and William Seward.² Prior and Forster give the editing to Isaac Reed (Prior, 'Life,' i. 315; Forster, 2nd edit. i. 190); but they do not give their authority. Nichols in several places says that Seward was the writer of the Preface (Timperley repeats this), and this would seem to make Seward the editor. Reed lived till 1807, and if he had edited Wright's collection it seems hardly likely that he would have let it go forth with the prefatory remarks quoted below *written by Seward*. Chalmers and Watt say Reed wrote the biography of Goldsmith which appeared with these

¹ The initials, it may be noted, of William Seward, the possible editor of this collection.—ED.

² Isaac Reed, the Shakspeare commentator, and William Seward, F.R.S., the compiler of 'Anecdotes of Distinguished Persons,' 1798, etc., and 'Biographiana,' 1799, who died April 24, 1799.—ED.

essays, &c., but they do not say he edited the collection. Nichols, who knew both Reed and Seward, as well as Wright, and who, as we have said, mentioned Seward's name in connexion with the publication, does not in any way, so far as we have seen, connect Reed's name with it. In the next place, the book is mysterious in so far that it—or our copy of it at least—has for imprint simply,—“London: Printed for _____” the rest being blank. And, again, the book seems to be “rare,” the British Museum having no copy of it, as if it had been either privately printed or partly suppressed. Messrs. Prior and Cunningham give its date as 1798, and a footnote to the contents table of vol. ii. gives 1797 as its (the notes) date of writing. Chalmers, however, and also Watt have 1795 as the date of the ‘Essays and Criticisms,’ 3 vols. 12mo., having Reed's biography prefixed. Perhaps the publication was made semi-private out of consideration for the Percy edition of Goldsmith's Works, which, after so much delay, was known to be then on the point of being issued. Some question of copyright may also have entered into the reticence observed, as most of the essays given in Wright's collection had been also got together for, and duly appeared in, the Percy edition, which, moreover, was of course viewed as an “author's” edition, the publication being principally for the benefit of Goldsmith's family; *vide ante*, pp. 2 and 76. The editor, or at all events the Preface writer, of Wright's collection says of it—after remarking upon Goldsmith generally:—“But though the ‘Essays’ published by Dr. Goldsmith himself were received by the world as the genuine efforts of genius, they were still but a selection. Many pieces of undoubted excellence were known to be omitted, and some which were suspected to be of his composition could not be certainly ascertained. These circumstances occasioned enquiry, and enquiry was the means of bringing to light what otherwise would not have been known. The late Mr. Thomas Wright, printer, a man of literary observation and experience, had, during his connection with those periodical publications in which the early works of Dr. Goldsmith were originally contained, carefully marked the several compositions of the different writers, as they were delivered to him in print. Being, therefore, it was supposed, the only person able to separate the genuine performances of Dr. Goldsmith from those of other writers in these miscellaneous collections, it became the wish of several admirers of the author of ‘The Traveller’ and ‘Deserted Village,’ that his authentic writings should no longer be blended with either doubtful or spurious pieces. Mr. Wright was therefore recommended and prevailed upon to print the present selection, which he had just completed at the time of his death.” Thomas Wright died March 3, 1793. After Hamilton's death he seems to have been in business as a printer for himself, first in Chancery Lane and then in Peterborough Court. He is said to have marked a copy of the *Westminster Magazine*, which he printed, and to the early numbers of which Goldsmith contributed, and a copy of the *Critical Review* during his connexion with that publication under Hamilton. These marked copies, however, seem to be now lost.—ED.



INDEX.

INDEX.

* * The date follows the title of Goldsmith's several works and separately published poems, essays, &c. The note-matter indexed is mostly marked "n."; but notes by Goldsmith are treated as text. A few additional notes are included in this index.

A. B. C. College, Goody Two-Shoes', v. 373.
 A——e, and Mrs. A——e, of Bath, iv. 80, 82.
 "A bonny young lad is my Jockey," Scotch air, ii. 113.
 Abel Drugger [? Garrick, as], i. 255.
 Abensberg, Count, and his 32 children, i. 73.
 Abilities, London the mart for, i. 156; great, not always the most serviceable, iii. 230.
 Abingdon, the "Three Pigeons" near, ii. 228 n.; Goldsmith there (?), *ib.*
 Abington, Mrs., and the character of Miss Hardcastle, ii. 290 n., ii. 291 n.
 Aboulfaouris, iii. 126.
 "About town" freaks, iv. 61, 184.
 Abra, the plains of, iii. 412.
 Abridgers, &c., v. 257.
 Abridgments, v. 136, 166, 252.
 Abstinence, v. 203.
 Abulfeda, iii. 363.
 'Abuse of our Enemies,' 1760, iv. 468.
 Abuses, the patrimony of, ii. 384.
 'Academies of Italy, Some Ac-

count of the,' 1759, ii. 417. *See also* Italy, Academies of.
 Academies (of Science) in London and Paris, v. 148.
 Academy, Royal, G.'s appointment as Professor at, i. 27, 456; Johnson's appointment, i. 456 n. *See also* Royal Academy.
 Accidents, i. 223, iii. 445.
 Accomplishments of the Vicar's daughters, i. 114.
 Ace of Hearts, game, iv. 79.
 Achilles, iv. 487.
 Acis and Galatea, Ovid's, i. 98.
 Acquaintances, iii. 95.
 Acrostic, warfare by, iii. 406.
 Acting, i. 154, 167; the traditional shrugs in, &c., i. 167; making a deal of a character, i. 295; how to please the public, *ib.*; deportment in, i. 440.
 Acton, Wickliffite, i. 283.
 Actor, the career of one checked, i. 299; the Harlequin who would be an, ii. 115.
 Actors, &c., iii. 172, 197, 294; in China, iii. 2 n.; English and foreign, ii. 309; their luxuriousness, iii. 518; and plays, iii. 517; early Roman, i. 347; styled vagabonds, ii. 413.

- Actresses, and audiences, ii. 339 ; beauty in, ii. 312 ; English, ii. 338.
- Æschylus, i. 348, iv. 316.
- 'Æsop's Fables' (Newbery), v. 356 n.
- Æsop's stag, ii. 116, l. 27.
- Æthiop: *See* Ethiop.
- Adam, speculations on, v. 132.
- 'Adamus Exul,' Grotius', and Milton's 'Paradise Lost,' ii. 55 n.
- Adaptation by Goldsmith, case of, ii. 438 ; his method of, v. 152.
- Addison, ii. 389, ii. 445, ii. 449, ii. 450, iv. 160, iv. 173, (?) iv. 176, iv. 367, 418, iv. 420, v. 345 ; his death, iv. 367 ; quoted, iv., 165 ; failed in conversation, i. 46 ; on the French, ii. 436 ; on Vauxhall, iii. 268 n. ; on wit, ii. 357 ; his 'Cato,' i. 402 n. ; on the chastity of birds, v. 232 ; iv. 367 ; his essays, i. 52 ; his Hymn, i. 358 ; his Latin lines on birds, ii. 135 ; his Letter from Italy, v. 156 ; his "political thinking," *ib.* ; and Bolingbroke, iv. 191 ; Dennis and, i. 402 n. ; and Parnell, iv. 177 ; and Steele and Swift, v. 345.
- 'Addresses to Royalty, On the Superabundance of,' i. 304.
- Admiration, the glare of, iii. 490 ; inducements to, iii. 378 ; mutual, iii. 407, iii. 281, iv. 406 ; and approbation, ii. 364.
- 'Admirer, a professed,' of women, iv. 56 ; a sincere, i. 405.
- Admirers, circles of, iii. 279.
- Admonition, fire and brimstone, iv. 129.
- 'Adonis, Death of,' Langhorne's, iv. 338.
- Adrastus and Atalanta, iv. 430.
- Adulation of kings, rebuke to, iii. 436.
- Adultery, punishments for, iii. 70.
- Adversity, the touchstone of friendship, v. 402 ; the school of, iii. 215, v. 302.
- Advertising, self, iii. 393, iv. 59 ; by controversy, iii. 407 ; physicians: *See* Quacks.
- Advice, i. 117, i. 465, iii. 101, 229, v. 65 ; disagreeable, i. 119 ; Goldsmith and, ii. 107.
- Afer, Constantinus, iii. 478.
- Affectation in poetry, i. 380 ; in style, ii. 448, v. 139 ; and art, i. 328 ; and nature, iv. 498.
- Affection, iii. 69 n.
- Afghanistan, Ghors of, iii. 274 n.
- Africa, animals of, v. 86.
- Age, life endeared by, iii. 276 ; restored to youth, iii. 89 ; and knowledge only sour our dispositions, ii. 334 ; old, and youth, i. 275.
- Age, the, degeneracy of, i. 275 ; the present, i. 323. *See also* Times.
- Ages, the bright and dark, iii. 237.
- Agincourt, battle of, i. 278, iii. 452, v. 288.
- Agreeable situation, an, i. 402.
- Agriculture, the genius of, i. 373.
- Agrippa, iii. 314.
- "Ah me! when shall I marry me?" (song) ii. 110.
- Aikin, Dr., his 'Life' of Goldsmith, i. 18, v. 3 n. ; his 'Anecdotes' of Goldsmith, iv. 303.
- Ailsbury, Bishop of (? Salisbury), iv. 178.
- Aims, high, ii. 374.
- Aix, iv. 62.
- Akenside, iii. 513 n., iv. 335.
- Alarmist reports, iii. 384.
- Alarmists, stock-holding, i. 312.
- Albemarle Street Club, the, ii. 260 n.
- Albinus, Prof., i. 419, 424.
- 'Alcander and Septimius,' ii. 313. — (notes, &c.) on, i. 53.
- 'Alcanor and Eudisia,' v. 413.
- Alcanor the Theban, and Atalanta, iv. 430.
- Alcibiades and Eupolis, i. 349.
- Alcoran quoted, iii. 364.
- Aldermen, iii. 105, 504.
- Aldrich, Rev. S., ii. 467, 473.
- Aldrovandus, U., v. 70, 72, 186.

Ale-house, the, and home, iii. 245 ; keepers, ii. 414.

Alexander, iii. 418, iv. 468, iv. 487 ; at Persepolis, iv. 111 ; and his physician, i. 333.

Alexander III., iii. 161.

Alexander, Sir Wm., iv. 424.

Alexandria in the reign of Theodosius the younger, ii. 349.

Alfred the Great, iii. 161, v. 270, 271 ; his laws and learning ; he founds Oxford University.

Alfric, iii. 477.

Algarotti, iii. 490.

Ali, Persian prophet. *See* Haly.

Allen, Ralph, iv. 106 ; and Bath, iv. 107 n.

Allen, Tom, i. 423.

Allemande, the, dance, ii. 297.

Alliteration, ii. 4.

All-night, the Countess of, iii. 207.

Ally Cawn, ii. 237. * * Jaffier

Ally Cawn, an Indian nabob concerned in the Warren Hastings, and previous, troubles in India.

Ally Croaker (? Ally Croker of the Irish Song), ii. 237. * * J. W. Croker says of Ally Croker (Stan. Lib. Boswell, iii. 265)—“This lady, a celebrated beauty in her day, was Alicia, the youngest daughter of Colonel Croker, of Ballinagard, in the county of Limerick. The lover whose rejection has immortalised her name is not known. She died without issue about the middle of the last century.”

Almack's, at, ii. 157. * * It appears there were two Almacks, a dancing-rooms and a gaming-club. Both originated with the same Scotchman, Almack. The club, in Pall Mall, was established in 1763 by Fox and others ; the dancing-rooms, on the site of Willis's Rooms, date about a year later. “The Irish Dr. Campbell” described the dancing-place in 1775 (*vide*

Napier's Boswell, vol. vi., p. 251).

Croker says the “new gaming-house” mentioned by Boswell in 1776 (Napier, iii. p. 75) was Almack's club. But the above date shows that the club was not “new” at that date. Almack's club removed to St. James's Street and became the existing “Brooks's.” *See also* Thatched House.

Almanacks, iv. 434.

Alms-giver, Goldsmith appointed an, v. 177 n.

Alone in a crowd, iii. 29.

Alphabet, the Chinese, iii. 2 n.

Alphabets, origin of, iv. 310, 313.

Alphonso, iii. 161.

Alps, the, ii. 7, l. 31, v. 193 ; people of, ii. 306 ; Goldsmith's wanderings there, v. 214.

Alston, Prof., i. 418, v. 127.

Altham, Lord, iv. 103.

Altama, wild, ii. 43, l. 344.

Amanuensis, Goldsmith's attempt to work through an, i. 23.

Amateurs, iii. 180.

Amazons, the, i. 317.

Ambition, ii. 3 ; disappointed, cure for, iii. 351 ; old and new, i. 280 ; of Lord Bolingbroke, iv. 220 ; and philosophy, iii. 490.

Ambitious mind, an, iv. 212.

Ambulaaohamed, poet, iii. 83.

Ambusheer, iii. 338.

Ambs ace. *See* Ames ace.

Amelia, Princess, iv. 135 ; Beau Nash and, iv. 69.

Amelia Wilhelmina Carolina Grogan, i. 308 : *See also* Skeggs, and Tibbs. * * Goldsmith's use of these names comes, no doubt, from their popularity consequent upon the Queen (of George II.) being named Wilhelmina Dorothea Carolina.

America, animals there are small and tame, v. 87 ; enlisting English slaves for, i. 162 ; Goldsmith's design of going there, i. 413 ; he predicts the War of

Independence, v. 32; and Spain, ii. 413; Spanish and English colonization of, v. 56; South, an ode of, iii. 422; the women of, iii. 414.

Amerigi. *See* Caravaggio.

Ames ace, or ambs ace, ii. 261.

Amhurst, N., ii. 451; iii. 508; iv. 413 n. *See also* 'Craftsman,' and D'Anvers.

Aminadab, little, ii. 222.

Amor Patriæ, the Romans', ii. 426.

Amsterdam, i. 163; a merchant of, iii. 13, 14.

'Amulius et Numitor,' Voltaire's, iii. 163 n.

Amusement, i. 290, 459, v. 259; books as, iii. 282; innocent, v. 189, 238; instructive, iii. 514; the search for, iii. 527; tasks as, ii. 409; and instruction, iv. 75; and learning, v. 198.

Amusements of ladies, temp. 1760, iii. 371 n.; of youth, i. 275; stage, 400, 401; trifling, iii. 187.

Amusing, better be, than useful, iii. 172; books, i. 179.

Amyot, Thos., iv. 407 n.

Anacreon, i. 436; in Elysium, iv. 488.

Anamaboo, iii. 272.

Anastomosis, an, iii. 66.

Anaxagoras, i. 328.

Ancient writings, forged, v. 134.

Ancients, the, their acquaintance with natural philosophy, v. 145; fabulous accounts of, v. 170; Moses Primrose quotes, i. 89, 92; on our side is half a victory, ii. 428; all the systems of morals are from them, v. 343; and moderns, iii. 529.

Andrews, Dr., i. 470.

Anecdote and history, v. 136.

Anecdotes and high-lived dialogues, the fondness for, i. 112.

Anger, i. 476.

Anglers' enjoyment, v. 239.

Anglesey, Earl of, and the Annesley peerage case, iv. 103.

Anglo-Saxon language, Hicks, Dr., on, iv. 438.

Animals, antipathies among, v. 82; those of America are small, v. 87; Cartesian theory of, iii. 448; crossing the breeds of, v. 93; cruelty to, iii. 56; effects of climate on, iii. 340; extinct, v. 79, 93; fecundity of, v. 88; five, at a meal, a fable, iii. 362; generation of, v. 88, 90, 91; inferior, tenderness for, i. 266; kindness to, v. 374, 384; are repress by the vicinity of man, v. 78, 85, 213; are sagacious in proportion as they cultivate society, ii. 369; savage and domestic, v. 77, 86; spirits embodied in, iii. 57; torture of to satisfy gluttony, v. 110; and men: *See* Men and animals, &c.

'Animated Nature, A History of the Earth and' (extracts from), 1769-74, v. 181.

— its alleged errors and wonderful stories, v. 83, 190, 191, 200, 212.

— Goldsmith studying for it, v. 212, 216.

— (notes on), i. 30, 461, 462, 464, 473, 484, ii. 135, 136, iii. 300, v. 2, 77, 119, 129, 174, 182, 217.

— (criticism of), i. 31, v. 182, 212.

— (cross-references to the extracts), iii. 470, iv. 358, 506, v. 77, 118, 232.

Anodyne necklace, dying of an, i. 156. * * * Mr. Austin Dobson (whose Parchment Library edition of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' came to hand after our first volumes were printed) says this is a reference to a quack remedy much advertised in Goldsmith's time. The necklaces were more particularly recommended for children while teething, and they seem to have been put forward by a Dr. Tanner.

Anon, ii. 250.

"Another guess," i. 148, ii. 163.

* * * Used "instead of other-

- guise."—R. Baker's 'Remarks on the English Language,' 1779.
- Anne, Queen, iii. 201 n.; the age of, iii. 531; her visit to Bath, iv. 63; the beaux of her time, iv. 87; literature in her time, ii. 444, iv. 462; party writers in her reign, ii. 450; Ashton's 'Social Life' of her reign, iv. 466; and Beau Nash, iv. 125; and her officers, iii. 457.
- Annesley, James, iv. 103; his peerage case, iv. 103. * * According to the *Genealogist*, N.S., 1885, this "unfortunate nobleman" was afterwards found to be illegitimate.
- 'Annual Register,' the two published, i. 474 n.; essay by Goldsmith in, iv. 509 n.; and Burke, iv. 239 n.
- 'Anson's Voyage,' iv. 263; iv. 279 n.
- Anstey, his 'New Bath Guide,' quoted, iv. 72, 74, 89 n.
- Answerers of books, iii. 50, 110.
- Ant, the, ii. 370, iii. 327, v. 113, 116.
- Anthony, iv. 487.
- Antiquarian, a learned, iii. 26.
- Antiques at auctions, ii. 156.
- Antiquity, affection for, ii. 397, iii. 370; "the baggage of," v. 139; obsolete (in poetic forms), v. 157; the study of, iii. 333, iv. 304.
- Antigallican, an, iv. 469.
- Anti-Gallican Magazine, The Literary and*, iv. 437.
- 'Anti-Lucretius' (criticism), 1757, iv. 265.
- 'Anti-Machiavel,' Frederick of Prussia's, and Voltaire, iv. 45.
- "Anti-Sejanus," of the *Public Advertiser*, ii. 49 n.
- Antonine, iii. 239.
- Antoninus, statues of, ii. 397.
- Antwerp, ii. 385, iii. 131; the Saracens in, ii. 367.
- Apennines, the, ii. 9, l. 105.
- Apes and men, ii. l. 41, 78.
- Apicus, iv. 142.
- Apollo Belvedere, the, i. 337.
- Apollonius, iii. 33, 153.
- Apoplexy, syncope, and parenthesis, iii. 258.
- Apothecary, one who turned the "dispensatory into verse," v. 74.
- Appalachian mountains, the, iii. 65.
- Appearances, keeping up, i. 107.
- Appetite, delights of a good, i. 292; and reason, iii. 527.
- Applause, ii. 213, iii. 503; mixed with envy, iii. 394; self, iii. 491; vulgar, ii. 414; withholding, i. 329; in theatres, iii. 78; authors and, i. 158.
- Apprentice, the, sets up for a critic, i. 324.
- Approbation and admiration, ii. 364.
- April, the First of, i. 84.
- Aprons, women's, prohibited at Bath by Beau Nash, iv. 69.
- Arabian, the, and the Utopian philosopher, v. 400.
- Arabs, the, iii. 417 n.
- Aral, lake, iii. 83.
- "Arbiter Elegantiarum, the, of his time" (Beau Nash), iv. 58.
- Arbuthnot, Dr., ii. 450, iv. 160, 163, 164 n.; and Parnell, iv. 166, 177.
- Arcadi, academy, ii. 418. *See also under Italy, academies of.*
- Arcadians, modern, iii. 482.
- Archdal, R., M.P., and the Archdal stanza added to 'Edwin and Angelina,' i. 235 n., ii. 28 n. *See also under 'Edwin and Angelina.'*
- Architects, the two, the theoretical and the practical, ii. 408.
- Arderon, W., his paper on dwarfs, v. 209 n.
- Argument, the Vicar strong in, i. 90; between Moses Primrose and the Squire, i. 94; against iniquity, ii. 475.
- Argun, iii. 374.
- 'Ariadne,' the minuet in, ii. 227.
- Ariana, ii. 433.

- Arimanes, iii. 141 n., 142.
 Arimaspians, the, iii. 60.
 Aristides and Themistocles, i. 335.
 Aristo, ii. 114, l. 1.
 Aristocracies, government by, iii. 211.
 Aristophanes, i. 349, 350, iv. 369, 427.
 Aristotle, ii. 77, l. 5, ii. 412, iv. 260, v. 146; on metaphor, i. 362; his natural history, v. 69, 72, 121; on poetry and music, i. 340; on tragedy and comedy, i. 349, 399; on wit, &c., ii. 356.
 Arlington, Lord, ii. 447.
 Armada, the, v. 11.
 'Armenian, an, in Ireland, Letters from' (review), 1757, iv. 285; (cross-reference to) iv. 281 n.
 Armies, discipline, &c., of, iii. 448; standing, conduce to despotism, v. 27.
 Armstrong, poet, i. 323 n., 364; iii. 513 n.
 'Armstrong, Johnny.' *See* 'Johnny A.,' i. 85.
 Army, iii. 412; embarking troops at the Tower, temp. Seven Years' War, v. 31; proposal to recruit it with women, i. 315; standing, iv. 435, v. 341; that of Frederick the Great, ii. 318. *See also* Military, &c.
 Arne, Dr., i. 301 n; his sister, ii. 339 n.; and Miss Brent, iv. 483 n.
 Arnold, Mr., i. 153.
 Arouet de Voltaire. *See* Voltaire.
 Arrack punch. *See* Punch.
 Arrest of Goldsmith for debt at Edinburgh, alleged, i. 10.
 Art, the disagreeable and horrible in, i. 338; Goldsmith disclaims being a judge of, ii. 31; Goldsmith's ignorance of, iii. 131 n.; imitation and ideal in, i. 337; the sublime in, i. 338; Mr. Tibbs on the power of, iii. 380; and affectation, i. 328; and Nature, i. 331, 337; and the nobility, iii. 192.
 'Art of Poetry, The' (Newbery's), v. 62, 409, 412.
 Arthur, Prince, and King John, v. 273.
 Artizans, ii. 387; and soldiers, iii. 92.
 Arts, "the Fine," rage for, iv. 478; the liberal, i. 341; the polite, iii. 129; rise of, iii. 468; a world without, i. 268; the wreck of, in Italy, ii. 10, l. 146.
 Arts, Society of, Goldsmith seeks appointment as its secretary, iii. 539 n.; Garrick and the, iii. 539 n.
 Arts and sciences, the, and barbarous and civilized states, iii. 305; progress of, Goguet on, iv. 342; rivalry of, iii. 523. *See also* 'Dictionary of Arts and Sciences.'
 "As I was a-walking," song, i. 256.
 Asclepiades, v. 134.
 'Asem, an Eastern Tale,' ? 1765, i. 263.
 Ashe, Sir George, iv. 158.
 Ashley, James, his Punch-house, iv. 463. *See also under* Punch.
 Asia, the, exploration of, iv. 361; Goldsmith's scheme for a tour through, i. 25, iv. 412; ignorance of travellers into, iii. 387.
 Asiatic, an, view of Europe, ii. 413.
 Asiatic Society, its explorations, iii. 389 n.
 Assafoetida, iii. 150, 200, 205, 357.
 Assemblies; the nobility and, i. 278; mixed in Russia, i. 299.
 Asses, why they have ears, ii. 75.
 Assurance, iv. 57; want of, ii. 233.
 Astrology among the Druids, v. 267.
 Astronomers, the crazes of, iii. 343; the Chinese, and Father Ricci, iii. 376.
 Atalanta and her golden apples. *See* 'Phanor.'

- Atellanæ, Roman, i. 346.
 Atheist, the, Polignac's address to, iv. 267.
 Athenian treatment of slaves, ii. 395.
 Athenians, the, and Draco's laws, iii. 299.
 Athens, ii. 313; and England, a parallel between, i. 350.
 Atterbury, Bp., ii. 448; iv. 24; his banishment, iv. 210, v. 343.
 Attorney, the, ii. 386, iii. 361; a special, ii. 58, l. 136.
 Attorney's apprentice, a rich, and mean, i. 166.
 'Attorney's Guide, The Young,' iii. 393.
 Auburn, near Athlone, ii. 141 n.
 Auburn, near Ballymahon, ii. 139 n.
 "Auburn, Sweet," ii. 33; locality of, ii. 18 n., 33 n., 138 n.
 Auctions, attending, i. 159, ii. 156; picture, i. 165, ii. 291.
 Aughrim, battle of, v. 338.
 Augureli (Italian poet), iv. 421.
 Augusta, Princess Dowager of Wales, ii. 97 n.
 'Augustan Age of England, An Account of,' 1758-9, ii. 443; (notes, &c.), ii. 456, iv. 437, 462, iv. 514, 515; (cross-reference), iv. 437.
 Aulus Gellius, iii. 473.
 Aunts, ii. 234.
 Aurelius Augurellus and Parnell, iv. 174.
 Ausiosi, Italian academy, ii. 418.
 Austria, the house of, v. 34, 42; and France, v. 35; and the Netherlands, v. 45; and popery, v. 45, 46; and Prussia, v. 28.
 Austrians, iii. 25, 27.
 Author, an, iii. 126; the mercenary, iii. 503; the poor, ii. 364, iii. 504; and bookseller, iii. 509; the greatness of an, ii. 375; the cruellest mortification of an, i. 157; commencing, i. 156; the, is a child, iii. 508; his critics, ii. 364; his fears, ii. 304; his ventures for popularity, iii. 11.
 Authorities, arguing from, iii. 261; Goldsmith and his, v. 172 n.; in writing, i. 391.
 Authors, disappointed, i. 159; dull and jog trot, i. 156; fashionable, v. 157; good, iii. 285; living, criticism of, iv. 421; mediocre, i. 158; modern, ii. 72, 87; neglected, iii. 508, iv. 378; noble, iii. 214; old, iii. 74; old and new, iii. 283; the old repress the new, iv. 365; poor, i. 440, 443, iii. 216, 507; professional and other, iii. 216, 347; those risen and rising, ii. 364; sententious, iv. 378; advice to, iii. 512; are "like running horses, should be fed, but not fattened," iii. 500; their benefit nights at the theatre, i. 469 n., iii. 520; encouragement of, iii. 500; their enemies, iv. 19; their lives, iv. 3; they supplement the legislature, iii. 507; patronage of, ii. 444, iii. 51: *See also* Patronage, Press, &c.; Pope Urban's hospital for, iii. 314; position of, iii. 316; quarrels of, ii. 323, 394, 389, iii. 506; successful, are like old trees who keep the sun's beams off the younger shoots, iv. 13; vanity of, ii. 362; at the Coffee-houses, i. 157; in China, iii. 109; a club of, iii. 109, 111; and applause, i. 158; and bailiffs, iii. 111, 116; and critics, iii. 75; professional, an appeal for, and the 'Case of' as stated by Ralph, iii. 529 n.: for Authors *see also* Grub Street, Literature, &c.
 'Author's Bed-chamber, Description of an,' 1759-60, ii. 82; Letters version, i. 451, and 'Citizen' version of the same, iii. 113; cross-reference to, iv. 384.
 "Author's nights" at the play, i. 469 n., iii. 520.
 Authorship and poverty, i. 430.

- See also under Author, Authors, Writing, &c.*
 Auto da fe, in Portugal, iii. 27.
 Avarice, ii. 355, iii. 503; disappointed, cure for, iii. 351.
- B., the Duke of (? Bolton), and Beau Nash, iv. 78.
 B——, R——, ii. 467.
 Babylon, destruction of. *See* 'Captivity.'
 Bachelor, an old, iii. 329.
 Bachelors, old, iii. 106.
 Back-stairs favourite, a, ii. 166.
 Bacon, iii. 162, 388, iv. 344, 451, v. 146, 309; on the distribution of money, iii. 274; quoted, v. 88.
 Bacon, Sir Nicholas, v. 305.
 Bacon, Roger, v. 145; his Brazen Head, v. 390.
 'Bacon, Advice from Friar,' v. 390.
 Bad men blush at doing good, i. 131, v. 255.
 Bag-pipe, the Alpine, v. 214.
 Bags (wigs), iv. 87, 469.
 Bailey, Old, 'at the bar' there, ii. 109.
 Bailiff and follower, ii. 174.
 Bailiffs, iii. 116.
 Baker, Sir George, ii. 93, 214 n.
 Baker and Leigh, publishers, i. 485 n., v. 162, 165.
 "Balance of power," in Europe, v. 25, 35.
 Balancing a straw, iii. 79, 172.
 Baldwin, R., publisher, v. 129.
 Ball, a, for fifteen days, ii. 295 n.
 'Ballad, A' (in the 'Vicar of Wakefield'), i. 99: *See also* 'Edwin and Angelina.'
 — (notes on), ii. 20-22.
 Ballad-singers, ii. 390.
 Ballads, v. 160; Irish, i. 393; Scotch, i. 388, 391: *See also* Bards, &c.
 'Ballamagairy, Humours of,' song, ii. 110 n.
 Ballinamony, Irish air, ii. 113.
 Balzac, J. L. G. de, v. 139.
- Bamford, E., giant, v. 209 n.
 Bangorian Controversy, the, ii. 424, iv. 394.
 Bankrupt, no, ever found the fair one kind, ii. 347.
 Bankruptcy, iii. 107.
 Banks, Sir G. ii. 95 n., iii. 389 n.
 Banstead mutton, i. 330.
 Bantam, iii. 302.
 Bantam, Lord, ii. 328.
 Bao, iii. 20.
 Bar cant. *See* Inn cant.
 Bar-maids, ii. 289.
 Barbacela, Queen of Emmets, iii. 185.
 Barbacued fish, iii. 331.
 'Barbara Allen,' ballad, i. 85; ii. 334.
 Barbarism and civilization, iii. 305, 309.
 Barbarity, military achievement, and refinement, iii. 326.
 Barbary, a corsair of, iii. 228.
 Barber, the, iii. 19.
 Barbour and Chaucer, iv. 440.
 Barbours, the feast of, iii. 136.
 Barclay and Perkins (brewers), iv. 413 n.
 'Bard, The,' Gray's, iv. 296.
 Bards, i. 392.
 Barnard, Dr., Bp. Limerick, &c., epitaph on, ii. 52, l. 5, 53, l. 23.
 Barn-door fowls, i. 330.
 Barnevelt, John, iv. 419 n.; Voltaire on, ii. 341.
 Barons, the, and King John, v. 277.
 Barresford, Mrs. = Mrs. Bulkley, ii. 289 n.
 Barretier, J. P., v. 205; Dr. Johnson's account of, v. 205 n.
 Barrett, S., his 'Ovid's Epistles,' iv. 325.
 Barrettiere. *See* Barretier, J. P.
 Barristers, ii. 113.
 Barrow, ii. 447; and Boyle, v. 334.
 Barry (actor), iv. 249 n., 285 n.
 Bartholomew Fair, i. 305, 309, ii. 366, iv. 329.
 Bartlet Court, Clerkenwell, ii. 463 n., 465.

- Barton, Suffolk, Goldsmith at, i. 465, 472, ii. 106.
- Bashful good sense, ii. 245.
- 'Basilicon Doron,' by James I., iv. 459.
- Basset, game, iii. 148, iv. 79.
- Bath, iv. 52, 178; Corporation of and Beau Nash, iv. 48 n. 49, 131, 133; gaming at, iv. 76; Goldsmith's visit, i. 407 n., iv. 48 n.; 'Historic Houses in,' Peach's, quoted, iv. 48 n.; the "makers of," iv. 107 n.; Morgan's Coffee House at, iv. 55; and Tunbridge, gaming at, iv. 142, 150. For Bath *see also* 'Life of Nash' generally.
- Bath, Earl of. *See* Pulteney, Wm.
- "Bath, King of" (Beau Nash). *See* Nash, Richard.
- Bath, cold, iv. 500.
- Bathing at Bath, iv. 73; Johnson's condemnation of, iv. 74 n.
- Bathurst (Allen), Lord, and Bolingbroke, iv. 227 n.; and the Scriblerus Club, iv. 170.
- Battersea, the Bolingbrokes and, iv. 182, 209, 219, 382 n.
- Bavius, iii. 408.
- Bawdy and pertness, as "figures" in novel writing, iii. 199.
- "Bawdy blockhead," a (? Sterne), iii. 285.
- Bawdy-house. *See* Disorderly house.
- Baxter, *alias* Poulter, highwayman. *See* Poulter, John.
- Baxter, Timothy, i. 218, iv. 154 n.
- Bayes, ii. 306; in the 'Rehearsal,' ii. 290; the name = dramatist, *ib.*, n.
- Bayle, ii. 411; on the historian's qualifications, iv. 255; and Polignac, iv. 265; and Lucretius, *ib.*; his 'Dictionary,' *ib.*
- Bayly, Anselm, iv. 312; his 'Introduction to Languages,' iv. 310, 312.
- Bayly, Zachary, the 'Epitaph' on, v. 409.
- 'Be Merry and Wise,' v. 356 n.
- Bear, the, that danced only to "the genteelest of tunes," ii. 227.
- Beard = whisker, iii. 373 n.
- Beard, singer and manager of Covent Garden Theatre, i. 454, 455 n., iii. 294 n.
- Bears' claws (dish), iii. 125, 357.
- Beattie, Dr., on Goldsmith, i. 47; Goldsmith on, iv. 20 n.; his 'Essay on Truth,' iv. 20 n.
- Beau, a, of three generations (Nash), iv. 87; the, or woman's man, iii. 36; Goldsmith a, ii. 107; a poor, iv. 57; "the shabby" and "the little" = Beau Tibbs, which *see*.
- Beau Nash, iv. 66. *See also* Nash, Richard.
- Beauclerk, Mr. Topham, i. 23, 39; studying chemistry, i. 461; epitaph on, by Goldsmith, ii. 58 n.
- Beaumelle, L. A., De La, iii. 479, iv. 277; his Memoirs of M^{de}. de Maintenon, iv. 275; and Voltaire, iv. 277 n.
- Beaumont and Fletcher, ii. 57, l. 124, iv. 418, 456.
- Beaus, battered, iv. 6.
- 'Beauties of English Poesy,' 1767 (preface), v. 153; notes on, i. 29, v. 150; cross-reference to, iii. 503.
- Beautiful, the, and the pleasing, iii. 289; and the sublime, iv. 239.
- Beautiful captive, the. *See* Zelis.
- 'Beautiful Youth Struck Blind,' &c., on a, 1759, ii. 79, 308.
- Beauty, ancient and modern, v. 209; bandbox, ii. 249; Chinese, iii. 182; defined as being "variously uniform" (Hutcheson), v. 261; of the face, v. 200; moral, i. 334; unadorned, ii. 326; in actresses, ii. 312; the curse of, iii. 224; ideas of, iii. 19; opinions of, iii. 419; a perfect, ii. 87, l. 104; preference of grace to, iii. 286; is simplicity, i. 328; the Region of, iii. 286; and the mind, iii. 288.

- 'Beauty, Elegy to the Old,' Parnell's (Johnson on), iv. 176 n.
 "Beauty, the garland of," ii. 105, l. 230.
 'Beaux' Stratagem,' the, ii. 257.
 Beaver, the, ii. 369, iii. 469, v. 78.
 Béchamel, Marquis de, iii. 210 n.
 Bechamele, a, iii. 210.
 Becket, W., bookseller, iv. 466 n.
 Beckford, Alderman, iii. 405 n.
 Bedford Coffee House, iv. 292.
 Bedford, the Corporation of, ii. 239.
 Bedlam = Bethlehem Hospital, iii. 359, 362. * * This is the common derivation. Dr. Murray, however, (of the Philological Society's Dictionary), has just shown (*Notes and Queries*, Sept. 5, 1885) that bedleme and bedelem, = mad, were used by Skelton and Sir T. More some twenty-seven years before Henry VIII. turned Bethlehem Monastery into a mad-house.
 'Bee, The,' 1759, ii. 301-455.
 — (notes, &c., on), i. 19, ii. 79, 80, 81, 302, 317, 362, 371, 390, 438, 443, 455, 456, iv. 437, 462.
 — (criticism), i. 408.
 — (cross-references to), iii. 260, 397, 421, 442, 488, 507, 508, iv. 2, 4, 43, 219, 323, 348, 350, 394, 417, 425, 437, 451, 465, 467, v. 77, 113, 169, 198, 252, 286, 341, 393.
 Bee, the, ii. 370, v. 116.
 Bee-hives, floating, v. 243.
 Bee-keeping, v. 243.
 Beef, Welch, i. 330.
 Beer, bottled, iii. 210; Calvert's, i. 292; "entire butt," i. 253; Sedgeley's, i. 292; brewed in London, 1760, return of, iv. 413 n.; duty on, iv. 413 n.; price of, ii. 178; tax, 1760-1, iii. 403 n.; v. tea, iv. 274.
 Beer-drinking in London, 1760, iv. 413 n.
 'Beer-street,' Hogarth's, iv. 413 n.
 Beetle, Lord, iii. 174.
 Beggar, a, his rebuke to the overfed clergy, iii. 220; and King, &c., which is happiest? iv. 506, v. 205.
 Beggary pride the only excusable vanity, ii. 348.
 Beggars, iii. 96; French, iii. 292; advice to, ii. 347; are the fondlings of nature, i. 292; modest, in Paris, ii. 322.
 'Beggars' Opera,' iv. 78 n.; Goldsmith and the, iii. 321 n.; and the magistrates, iii. 321 n.; the rival Pollys, iii. 295; Mrs. Vincent and Miss Brent in, iv. 400.
 Beggary, aspiring, i. 78.
 Begging, for others, iv. 105, 107.
 Behaviour, rules for, i. 261.
 Belgic Gauls, the, iv. 437.
 "Belgic sires," the, of the Dutch, ii. 15, l. 313.
 Belief and infidelity, iv. 395.
 'Belinda to Charlotte,' letter, iii. 148.
 Belisarius, i. 399.
 Bellamano, Julia, and Da Corsin, iii. 422.
 Bellamy, Mrs. (? actress), ii. 97.
 Bellas, G., his dispute with Goldsmith on the movability of the upper jaw, v. 200 n.
 Bellerophon, v. 171.
 Belles, "old, dressy things," ii. 157.
 'Belles Lettres, On the study of the,' 1761-63, i. 323-86.
 — (notes), i. 311, 323, 325 n., 341, 386, 406.
 — (cross-references to,) iii. 519, 525, iv. 8, 329, 403, 418, 427, 457.
 Bellman, the famous, iii. 392.
 Bellows-mender, Mr., i. 254, 261.
 Bell-wether, a, of Bantam, iii. 302.
 Belt, pricking in the (cheating game), iv. 115.
 Benefit nights, authors'. See Authors.
 Benevolence that is weakness, ii.

- 212; universal, i. 269, ii. 149, 181, 199, 376, iii. 85; is the first law of nature, iii. 100, v. 406.
- 'Benevolence, The Triumph of:' *See* Francis Wills.
- Ben Funk, Nathan, i. 261.
- Benin, iii. 480.
- Bennett, Bp., and Goldsmith's Letters, i. 410 n.
- Bensley, actor, ii. 146, 147.
- Benson, "Auditor," iv. 265 n.
- Bentivoglio, iii. 314.
- Bentley (bookseller) and Otway, ii. 446.
- Bentley, Dr. Richard, and Hon. Chas. Boyle, iv. 421, 514 n.
- Berghem prints, ii. 431.
- Berkeley, v. 344.
- Berlin, carriage, ii. 389.
- Berlin, court of, under Frederick II., iv. 41; Royal Society of, iii. 484, iv. 44.
- Berners, Lord, his translation of Froissart, iv. 443.
- Bertholdus Teutonicus, iii. 478.
- Berwick, Marshal, iv. 200.
- Bet Bouncer, ii. 227, 250.
- Bethlehem Hospital, i. 250, iii. 260 n., 359, 362, *See also* Bedlam.
- Betterton, Thos., ii. 446 n.
- Beverly, Wickliffite, i. 283.
- Bewicks, the, their cuts to Newbery's books, v. 357.
- Bewitched, being, i. 285. *See also* Witches, &c.
- Bible, the, James I. trans., iv. 452; metaphor, &c., in, i. 374; Bolingbroke on, iv. 218; and the doctrine of a future state, iv. 395; and Prayer Book, revision of, iv. 453.
- "Bible and Sun," St. Paul's Churchyard (Newbery's shop), iii. 16 n., v. 407 n.
- Bickerstaff, writers under that name, iv. 248; Mr., i. 460, 463.
- Biderman (poet), iv. 338.
- Bidderman, the Wise, story of, ii. 366; and the executioner, ii. 367.
- Biddy Evergreen, Miss, ii. 327.
- Bietka and Zachary, of Poland, ii. 478.
- Billiards, iv. 149.
- Billingsgate, iv. 294 n.; fish-women of, i. 318.
- Binecly, John (?), i. 423.
- Binely, John (?), i. 423.
- Biographers, of little great men, iii. 281.
- Biographical Dictionaries, ii. 412; writings, iv. 50.
- Biography, iv. 128; frankly written, iv. 54, v. 65.
- 'Biography, Compendium of,' Newbery's, Goldsmith's 'Plutarch' there, i. 453 n., v. 65 n.
- Bion, 'Death of Adonis,' from, iv. 338.
- Bird-catching, v. 229.
- Bird-life, the lessons of, v. 238.
- Birds, ii. 38, l. 167, v. 94; call (the bird-catchers'), v. 231; in captivity, v. 232; chastity of, ii. 135, v. 232; flight of, v. 96; flur [? slurr], v. 230; migration of, v. 220, 229; nest building, &c., v. 101; singing, v. 228, 229; and serpents, iv. 258.
- Birds'-nest soup, &c., iii. 125, 357, v. 235.
- Birth-date, Goldsmith's, ii. 2, 59.
- "Birth-night, the" (of the King), iii. 290, 354, v. 202 n.
- Birthplace, Goldsmith's, i. 59 n. *See also* Lissoy.
- Biscay, iv. 306; language of, and that of the Irish, iv. 307.
- Bish, Gye, and Hughes of Vauxhall, iv. 479 n.
- Bishops, ii. 411; and clergy, iii. 217; Irish, iv. 286; the, acquittal of, iii. 456.
- Bittern, the, ii. 34, l. 44, v. 236; his cry ominous, v. 238.
- Black servants, iii. 243.
- Black, Mr. Wm., on Goldsmith, ii. 403 n.
- 'Black Eagle, the' (ballad), i. 391.
- 'Black Joke, The,' a comic song, v. 224.

- Black-eyed Princess and her daughters, story of the, iii. 329.
 Black-and-all-Black, iii. 28.
 Blackberry, the Vicar's horse, i. 109.
 Blackbirds, i. 98, ii. 135, v. 220.
 Blackleg, Lady Betty, ii. 260.
 Blacklock, Dr. T., i. 323 n., 354.
 Blackmore, Sir R., i. 64 n., 380; his 'Nature of Man,' and Goldsmith's 'Traveller,' i. 54.
 Blacksmith, the village, ii. 40, l. 245.
 Blackstone, Sir W., his 'Commentaries,' v. 254; and Goldsmith in the Temple, *ib.*
 Blainville's 'Travels,' i. 453, ii. 21.
 'Blaize, Mrs. Mary, An Elegy on,' 1759, ii. 81.
 — (notes), ii. 81, 89.
 — (cross-reference to), iii. 384.
 Bland, a gambler, iv. 142.
 Blandy, Miss, iv. 434.
 Blank verse, i. 383, ii. 4, iii. 512, 513, iv. 297.
 Blarney, Lady, i. 111, 113.
 Blemixæ, the, iii. 61.
 Blenkinsop, the family, i. 140; mouth, (Tony Lumpkin's), ii. 248.
 Blessing our enemies, i. 142.
 Blessings from seeming calamities, i. 122.
 Blewit, Anthony, i. 258.
 'Blind, on a youth struck' (poem), ii. 79, 308.
 Blindman's-buff, i. 285.
 Bloods and gallants, i. 287.
 Blotting, the art of, *i.e.*, abridging, v. 166.
 Bluntness, affected, iii. 95.
 Blushing, bad men blush at doing good, i. 131.
 Boadicea, v. 265.
 Boarding-schools. *See* Schools.
 'Boar's-head Tavern, Eastcheap, a Reverie at the,' 1760, i. 275.
 — (notes), iii. 452.
 Boaster, a, silenced, iv. 99.
 Bobs (wigs), iv. 87.
 Boccaccio, his 'Titus and Gisippus,' ii. 313 n.; his 'Decameron,' ii. 313 n.
 Bocalini, iv. 333.
 Boerhaave, iv. 357.
 Boethius, iii. 314, 473.
 Boh, the, iii. 35.
 Boileau, ii. 356; iv. 348; on eloquence, ii. 421; on tragedy and comedy, i. 399; his Satires, and Goldsmith's 'Haunch of Venison,' ii. 50 n.
 Bolingbroke, Lord, ii. 450, iii. 55, v. 344; his freaks "about town," iv. 184; his character, iv. 180 n., 220, iv. 24; his 'Dissertation on Parties,' iv. 180 n., 214; his impeachment, iv. 192, 195; his 'Letters on History,' suppressed portions of, iv. 228 n.; his 'Letter to Sir Wm. Wyndham,' iv. 198, 209; his 'Patriot King,' ii. 448, 449; his poetry, iv. 184; his politics, iv. 189; his 'Reflections,' iv. 209; his will, iv. 222 n.; his works, iv. 223 n.; those works burnt by Pope, iv. 227 n.; his views on sacred history, iv. 218, 226 n.; Goldsmith's vindication of him, iv. 180 n.; Johnson on, iv. 223 n.; and Parnell, iv. 170, 177; and Pope, iv. 422 n.; and Swift, &c., iv. 170 n.; and Voltaire, iv. 28. *See also* Pretender, &c.
 'Bolingbroke, The Life of Lord,' 1770, iv. 179.
 — (notes), i. 29, iv. 180.
 — (criticism), i. 407.
 — (cross-reference to), iv. 9.
 Bologna, academies in, ii. 418.
 Bolton, Chas. Powlett, 3rd Duke of, iv. 78 n.
 Bonbennin - benbobbin - bonbobbinet, Prince, story of, iii. 181, 184.
 Bone-setter, Mrs. Map, the, iv. 433 n.
 Bonetius, v. 124.
 Bonnets, Prussian, ii. 325, 328.
 Bonny, Anne, i. 317.

- Bonzes, brahmins, and priests, iii. 40, 101.
- Booby, the, iii. 311.
- Book publishing, Dutch, iii. 487 ; by subscription, iii. 115.
- Book answerers, iii. 74, 193, 487 : *See also* Answerers ; book 'making,' ii. 401, iii. 76, 347, 393, 503 n., 511, iv. 344.
- Books, i. 67, 175, 499, iii. 250 ; amusing, i. 179, iii. 282, 376 ; bad in England and France, iii. 285 ; big and little, iii. 483, v. 137 ; forgotten, v. 168 ; French and English, iv. 342 ; Goldsmith's, v. 188 : *see also* Library ; published by subscription, iii. 502 ; old, ii. 220 ; old and new, ii. 364, iii. 283 ; original and commmentative, ii. 397 ; new, iii. 357 ; a plea for new, iii. 282 ; that repel, iii. 357 ; scarce, iii. 376 ; answerers of, iii. 50 ; the love of, iii. 310 ; names other than of the writers put to, iii. 195 ; number published, iii. 109 ; 18th cent., quotation marks in, i. 341 n. ; seasons for, iii. 191 ; title-pages for, iii. 192 ; title-pages of, iii. 357 ; and men, reputation of, i. 130.
- Bookseller, the, and 'the Immortal Xixofou,' ii. 416 ; author and, iii. 509 ; a mercenary, iii. 50 ; secrets of his trade, iii. 191 ; the shop of a, iii. 392.
- Booksellers, Goldsmith's work for the, i. 17, 21 : *See also* Compilation works, &c. ; tactics of the, iii. 356 ; working for, ii. 408 ; Voltaire on, iii. 505 ; early English, iv. 443 ; at Bath, iv. 73, 75 ; the English, and Voltaire, iv. 33.
- Booksellers' hack, a (Ned Purdon), ii. 91.
- Book-taught philosophy, iii. 250.
- 'Book-worm,' Parnell's, iv. 176.
- Boot-catcher = Boots (at an inn), iv. 113, 123.
- Born with a silver, or wooden, spoon, &c., iii. 433.
- Borneo, iii. 414.
- Borough, the, ii. 246.
- Borrowing, ii. 344, 346, iii. 103.
- Boswell, James, i. 50, 52, iii. 268 n. ; anticipated, iii. 282 ; possible error in, iv. 223 n. ; on Goldsmith, i. 44 ; on Hypochondriasis, iii. 337 n. ; and Derrick, iv. 138 n.
- Botanists, great scientific, are too scientific, v. 120.
- 'Botany, Of,' v. 119.
- 'Bottle Bubble,' the, iv. 434.
- Bounce, a, ii. l. 14, 46 ; l. 42, 48.
- Bourbon rule, v. 33, 46.
- Bourchier, Archbishop, iv. 442.
- Bourignon, Antoinette, v. 132.
- Boursault (French playwright), iv. 104.
- Bow Street, ii. 80 ; Police Court, Fielding, Sir John, of, ii. 108.
- Bower, Archibald, Scotch Jesuit, ii. 55, l. 89 ; his 'History of the Popes,' &c., ii. 55 n.
- Bowleson Goldsmith's poetry, i. 53.
- Bowyer (printer), iv. 404 n.
- Boy, be a, i. 275 ; drowned while swimming in the Thames, i. 306.
- Boyle, v. 148 ; on discoveries in the arts, iii. 390.
- Boyle, and Bentley, iv. 421 : *see also* Bentley ; and Barrow, v. 334.
- Boyne, battle of the, v. 179 n, 336.
- Boys, making them sharp, i. 132 ; modest and 'lubberly,' ii. 407.
- Boyse, Samuel, v. 151 n. ; his 'Deity,' v. 151.
- Bradley, bookseller, Dublin, i. 434, 441, 448.
- Braddock, Fanny (Sylvia S—), story of, ii. 212 n.
- General, iv. 91 n., 97 n.
- Brama, iii. 308 n.
- Brahmins, iii. 40, 56, 363, 400.
- Brandellius and Mogusius, iii. 281 n., iv. 406.
- Brandenburgh, the house of, v. 25, 28. *See also* Prussia, &c.
- Brandy, drinking, i. 300 ; and gin partizans at an election, iii. 403.

- Brandy punch. *See* Punch.
 'Bravery of the English Common Soldiers,' iii. 447-450.
 — (notes, &c.), iii. 457, 458.
 "Bravo! Encore!" i. 251.
 Brazen Head, Friar Bacon's, v. 390.
 Bread panic (the sixpenny loaf), iii. 259.
 "Breasts the keen air," ii. 12, l. 186.
 Bred, well, the, iii. 147.
 Breeding and finery, i. 103.
 Brent, Miss (singer), iii. 294 n., 295, iv. 505 n. *See also* Vincent, Mrs., and Miss Brent.
 Brentford, a cart race there, iii. 323.
 Brentford, the Duke of, ii. 168.
 Brereton, Jane, her epigram on Beau Nash, iv. 112 n.
 Brest, v. 31; English war prison there, iii. 433.
 Bretherton, engraved portrait of Goldsmith by, i. 62 n.
 Brewers, London, in 1760, iv. 413 n.
 Brick Court, Temple, Goldsmith in. *See* Temple.
 Brick-dust man, the, iii. 393.
 Brisson, v. 186.
 Bristol stones and diamonds, i. 307.
 Bristow, W., publisher, ii. 457, iv. 153, 466, v. 404 n.
British Magazine, and Goldsmith's contributions to it, i. 201, 237, 275, 290, 311, 315, 320, 323, 386, 389, 406, 407, ii. 393, iii. 428, 447, 458, 459, iv. 416, 473, 476, 477, 479, 483, 486, 491, 496, v. 202, 412.
 British Museum, v. 74; Goldsmith there, v. 74 n.; Johnson there, *ib.*
 Brito, signature, ? Goldsmith's, iii. 450 n.
 Britons, the, iv. 437, v. 262, 264; Cæsar's description of, i. 393.
 Broad Street, v. 178 n.
 Brocane (dance), ii. 298.
 "Broken" officer, a, iii. 453.
 "Brook, the never-failing," ii. 33, l. 11.
 Brooke, Lord. *See* Greville, Fulk.
 Brooke, Mrs., i. 472.
 Brookes, Dr. R., v. 73, 75; his 'Gazetteer,' &c. *See also* 'Natural History,' Brookes's.
 Brookes's 'Natural History.' *See* 'Natural History.'
 Brooks's Club. *See* Almack's.
 Broom, the, near Islington, iii. 110.
 Broom of Cowdenknows (ballad), i. 388, 391.
 Brothels in London, ii. 431.
 Brough, Mr. Lionel, as Tony Lumpkin, ii. 271 n.
 Broughton, John, prize-fighter, iv. 290.
 Brown, Wickliffite, i. 283.
 Brown, Tom, his works, i. 249.
 Browne, Hawkins, his 'Pipe of Tobacco,' v. 158.
 Browne, Sir T., on generation, v. 247.
 Brueys, D. A., his 'Le Grondeur,' ii. 295 n.
 Bruhl, Count, v. 49.
 "Brunswick," Goldsmith attacked in a letter so signed, v. 176, 177 n.
 Brunus, iii. 73.
 Brutes, treatment of, i. 331; whether they have souls, &c., v. 94.
 Brutes and man, ii. 77, l. 3, iii. 56, 166, 469. *See also* Animals, &c.
 'Brutus,' Voltaire's, iv. 27.
 Bruyère, ii. 356, iv. 379.
 Bryanton, R., i. 450; Goldsmith's letters to, i. 420, 425.
 Brydges, Sir E., on Goldsmith's poetry, i. 53, 55.
 Buchanan, Hamilton. *See* H. B.
 Buck of Beverland, story, i. 91.
 Buckingham, Duke of, iv. 420 n.; his 'Essay on Poetry,' v. 161; his 'Rehearsal,' ii. 290 n., iv. 373.
 Buckingham - gate, the Queen's menagerie there, v. 212 n.

- Buckinghamshire, Sheffield, Duke of, iv. 420.
- Buckskin, old Miss Biddy, and Miss Rachael, ii. 260.
- Buckstone, J. B., as Tony Lumpkin, ii. 271 n.
- Buddha, the Chinese, iii. 2 n.
- Buffalo and serpent combat, v. 241.
- Buffon, iv. 72, 92, 186; on "equivocal generation," v. 118; Goldsmith's use of his *Natural History*, i. 31, v. 182, 186, 189; his theory of the earth's formation, v. 192; is corrected by Goldsmith, v. 216; Goldsmith and, at issue, v. 199.
- Bug-man, the, i. 254.
- Bulkley, Mrs., actress, i. 468, ii. 92 n., 110, 114, 146, 213, 217, 289, 290 n., 291 n.
- Bullen, Anne, v. 296, 300; her learning; her letter to Henry VIII., iv. 445.
- Bunbury, Henry (Geoffrey Gambado), ii. 94 n.; his portrait of Goldsmith, i. 62 n.
- Bunbury, Sir H., his letters of Goldsmith, i. 465, ii. 93 n., 106 n., v. 411 n.; his 'Correspondence of Sir T. Hanmer,' i. 465.
- Bunbury, Mrs., i. 465.
- 'Bunbury, Mrs., Letter in Prose and Verse to,' 1772-4 (?), ii. 106.
- (notes on), v. 410.
- (cross-reference to), iv. 508.
- Bunburys, the, of Barton, i. 472.
- See also* Bunbury, Mrs., &c.
- Bundle, Miss Biddy, ii. 157.
- Bundy, his *Hist. Rome*, v. 163.
- Bungees, iii. 290.
- Bunters (rag-pickers), i. 318, 328.
- Buonaroti, Michael Angelo, i. 352.
- Burchell, Miss = Mrs. Vincent, *which see*.
- Burchell, Mr., i. 80; the children, and his pockets, 91.
- Burdock, Dr., i. 113.
- Burgersdicius, "the cold logic of," iv. 158, 502 n.
- Burgess, Daniel, iv. 182.
- Burial, Goldsmith's, in the Temple, i. 40.
- Burke, Edmund, i. 23, 37, 39, 40 n., 456, 459, 461, ii. 48, l. 49, iv. 239 n.; his speeches, ii. 49, l. 72, 53 n.; he is called the "Dinner Bell," ii. 53 n.; his youthful squabbles with theatre managers in Dublin, ii. 47 n.; on Goldsmith at College, i. 6; review of his 'Ideas of the Sublime and Beautiful,' iv. 239; Goldsmith's epitaph on him, ii. 52, l. 6, 53, l. 29; and the 'Annual Register,' i. 474 n., iv. 239 n.; and Goldsmith, i. 43, iv. 247 n.; and the 'Good-Natured Man,' i. 26, ii. 145 n.; and Sir J. Hawkins, i. 23.
- Burke, Richard, epitaph on, ii. 52, l. 8, 54, l. 51.
- Burke, William, epitaph on, ii. 52, l. 7, 54, l. 43.
- Burleigh, Lord, iv. 457; and Spenser, iv. 337 n., v. 305.
- Burlesque, and the sublime, iii. 379; burlesque poetry, Gay's, v. 156. *See also* Greenland tale, burlesque.
- Burlettas, ii. 452.
- Burlington, Countess of, iv. 135.
- Burn, schoolmaster, ii. 139 n.
- Burn, Mr. *See* Byrne.
- Burnet [? Dr. Thos.], v. 334.
- Burnet and Pope, &c., iv. 177.
- Burney, Dr., i. 37; and Goldsmith, i. 471; his 'Memoirs,' i. 471 n.
- Burning heretics under Henry V., i. 283.
- Burton, Dr. John, iv. 315 n.; his 'Pentalogia,' *ib*.
- Business, fatigued for want of, iv. 473; the man of, iii. 167; mind your, iii. 263.
- 'Busy Body, The,' i. 249 n., ii. 76 n., 78 n., iv. 416 n., 462 n.
- Bute, Lord, and Goldsmith, i. 25 n.
- Butler, Samuel (poet), ii. 343 n., iii. 347, iv. 368, 377, 418, v. 334;

- his defence of liberty and religion, iv. 369; his 'Elephant in the Moon,' iii. 486, iv. 370; his 'Hudibras,' iv. 370 n.; his politics, iv. 370; his poverty, iii. 315, iv. 368; his prose works, iv. 377; his 'Satires,' iv. 370; his "Those that fly may fight again," &c., and Goldsmith, v. 409; his 'Thoughts,' iv. 381; quoted, iv. 291; and his editors, iv. 372 n.; and Otway, i. 440; and the 'Rehearsal,' iv. 373.
- 'Butler's Remains' (criticism), 1759, iv. 368.
- Butterflies, v. 115; and caterpillars, v. 242.
- 'Butterflies' Ball, The,' &c., v. 407 n.
- 'Butterfly Pursuit, Phanor, or the,' 1758, iv. 429.
- "Bye-fore George!" (oath), iii. 263 n., v. 173 n.
- Byng, Admiral, iv. 434; his case, iii. 457 n.; trial and execution, iii. 321 n., 450 n.
- Byrne, Mr., ii. 46 n.
- Byrom, Dr., iii. 22 n.; his 'Phœbe,' v. 161; his 'Tom the Porter,' iii. 22 n.
- Byron, Lord, on Goldsmith's poetry, i. 53.
- Byshe's 'Art of Poetry,' v. 63.
- C——k, of Bath, iv. 80.
- Cabiric mysteries, the, iv. 307.
- Cacafogo, Dr., iii. 70.
- Cadell, Mr., publisher, Goldsmith's letters to, i. 472.
- Caen Wood, iii. 442 n.
- Cæsar, iv. 487; his description of Britain, i. 393; his Commentaries, i. 335; and Laberius, ii. 75.
- Cafraria, iii. 414.
- Calais, Goldsmith at, i. 458.
- Calamities of high and low life, i. 399, 401; seeming, may be blessings, i. 122.
- Calamity, iii., 169; oppose it with dissipation, ii. 337; patience sufficient for every, i. 146.
- Caledonians, Picts, &c., iv. 438.
- Calmucks, the, iii. 18.
- Calumny, ii. 460, 469.
- Calvert, Sir Wm. (brewer), iv. 413 n.
- Calvert and Seward (brewers), iv. 413 n.
- Calvert's butt, i. 292, ii. 82 n., iv. 413 n.
- Calvin, Voltaire on, ii. 341.
- Calvinism in England, in Holland, and in Switzerland, v. 311.
- Camblet. *See* Camlet.
- Cambray, Bp. of, his will providing for his "bastards," v. 293.
- Cambridge University, iii. 523, v. 300; Queen Elizabeth's visit to, v. 306.
- Cameron, Jenny, i. 318.
- Camoens, iii. 314.
- Campania's plain, ii. 6, l. 5.
- Campbell, T., on Goldsmith's poetry, i. 56.
- Campbell, Dr., "the Irish," his life of Goldsmith (Percy's), iii. 50 n., v. 179 n. *See also* Percy.
- Canada, conquest of, i. 316 n., ii. 79, v. 29; a doubtful acquisition for England, iii. 64; and the French, v. 14, 29.
- Canadian War, iii. 63.
- Canary, the, v. 232; a learned, v. 102.
- Canbery House. *See* Canonbury House.
- Candle-snuffer, a (theatrical), i. 295, 296.
- Candle-snuffing with the fingers, i. 254, iii. 500.
- Candour, ii. 354.
- Canning, Elizabeth, iv. 121, 434.
- Canonbury, Goldsmith at, i. 19, 20, 21.
- Canonbury House, Islington, i. 21, ii. 51 n., iii. 441 n., v. 150 n.
- Cant and formality, v. 5.
- Cantharides, iii. 200.
- Canvassing voters, iii. 404.

- Capacity, i. 326, 327 ; of children, *ib.*
 Capital punishments, i. 197 ; *See also* Death punishment.
 Capriole, Signior, or Rigaudon, ii. 294, 296.
 'Captivity, The,' 1761 ?, ii. 61-74.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 483, ii. 83.
 — criticism on, ii. 74.
 — Songs from, ii. 83.
 Caramuel, iii. 9.
 Caravagio (Amerigi), the painter, ii. 398. * * Mr. Graves' new edition of 'Bryan' gives a somewhat different account of Amerigi and his death to that given by Goldsmith.
 Carbuncle, Dr., iii. 70.
 Cardanus, iii. 73.
 Card-playing, i. 436, ii. 290 ; in Holland, i. 428 ; by ladies, iii. 371 n. ; on Sundays, i. 302. *See also* Gaming, &c.
 Card-sharper, one bitten by a Chinese lady, iii. 371.
 Caribbee Indians, i. 317.
 Carinthian boor, the, ii. 6, l. 3.
 Carleton, Mr., i. 442 n.
 Carlile, R., his 'Life of T. Paine,' v. 178 n.
 Carnan and Newbery, i. 64 n., v. 119, 143, 407 n. *See also* Newbery, Francis, &c.
 Carolan, the Last Irish Bard, i. 392.
 Caroline, Queen, and Voltaire, iv. 35. *See also* Amelia Wilhelmina.
 Carols, Christmas, i. 84.
 Carp, v. 105, 106.
 Carpenters in Russia, i. 300.
 Cart race, a, iii. 323.
 Carte, T., his Hist. Eng., v. 168.
 Carter, Mrs. Elizabeth, her Letters, v. 250 n.
 Cartesians, i. 151 ; their theory of animals, iii. 448.
 Cartesius, iii. 162, 484. *See also* Descartes.
 Carving, i. 76, iii. 445.
 Carwarden, Mr., iii. 133.
 Cary, Mr., iv. 178.
 Cashmere. *See* Kashmire.
 Cassander. *See* Cassandre.
 Cassandre, F., iii. 315, iv. 378.
 Cassibelaunus, v. 265.
 Cassier, Anne, alias Mother Wade, i. 317.
 Cassowary, v. 232.
 Caste, &c., iii. 274.
 Casuist, a, iii. 186.
 Cat, the, iii. 56 ; the blue, iii. 186.
 Catch-pole, the, iii. 116, 361.
 Cateaton, a club at, i. 260.
 Caterpillars, v. 112, 115, 242.
 Catgut, "flourishing upon," &c., i. 86, 107, 114. * * This catgut was "a sort of canvas for ladies' work."—ASH's *Dict.*, 1775.
 Catharine of Arragon, v. 295.
 Catharine I., of Russia, i. 299, iii. 233, 398.
 Catherina Alexowna. *See* Catharine I.
 Catley, Miss or Mrs., i. 468, ii. 110.
 Cato, iii. 472.
 'Cato,' Addison's, iv. 426.
 Catrou and Rouille's Hist. Rome, v. 163.
 Catskin, the Adventures of, story, i. 91. * * 'The Wandering Young Gentleman ; or, Catskin.'
 Caucasus, iii. 223.
 Cavaliers, the, iv. 425, v. 332.
 Cave, E., and S. Boyse, v. 151 n.
 "Caw me, caw thee," iii. 406 n.
 Caxton, iv. 442, 443.
 'Cecilia,' Miss Burney's, quoted, iv. 135 n.
 Cecil, R., temp. James I., v. 57.
 Cecils, the, iii. 455, iv. 337, v. 305.
 Celibacy, prevalence of, iii. 275, 328. *See also* Marriage, &c.
 Celtes, mythology, &c., of, iv. 233.
 Celtic, the, iii. 513, iv. 437 ; carols, i. 388 ; language and the Gothic, iv. 309 ; "the universal language of the post-diluvian world," iv. 307 ; poetry, ancient, i. 353 ; remains, i. 393, v. 268.
 Censorious, the, iii. 85.

- Censure and praise, v. 17.
 Centaury, i. 87.
 Cento, a, i. 454.
 Ceremonial Academy, the, Pekin, iii. 17.
 Ceremonies, iii. 147; Chinese books of, iii. 319.
 Ceremony, i. 85, iii. 283, 380, 412, iv. 71.
 Certainty, The Land of, iii. 140.
 Cervantes, ii. 394, iv. 284; his poverty, iii. 314; and Smollett, iv. 476.
 Chaco, iv. 262.
 Chaffinch, the, v. 221.
 "Chain, a lengthening," ii. 6, l. 10, iii. 17; the universal, iii. 444.
 Chalmers' ed. of Goldsmith, 1810, ii. 97 n.
 Chaloner brothers, story of, iv. 483.
 Chambers, Ephraim, his Cyclopædia, i. 37 n.
 Chambers, Sir W., ii. 102 n.; his work on Chinese gardening, &c., iii. 54 n.
 Chamier, Mr., i. 23, 459; on Goldsmith, i. 45.
 Champagne (painter), i. 390.
 Champion of England, the, at the coronation, iii. 379.
 Champnes, Mr., singer, ii. 97.
 Chance, living by, v. 203.
 Changes, necessary to constancy, iii. 446.
 Change Alley, ii. 353.
 Changing, fond of, iii. 244.
 Chaos, the earth in, v. 191.
 Chaplain, Squire Thornhill's, i. 93.
 Charing Cross, iii. 43 n.; Ludgate to, in 1759, iv. 463.
 Character, changes in, v. 330; discernment of, iv. 429; drawing, iv. 425; a double, iv. 506; told by the face, v. 201; Goldsmith's: *See* under Goldsmith, his character.
 Characteristics of nations, i. 320, iii. 25.
 'Characters,' writing, iv. 379.
 Chardin, Sir John, iii. 417 n.; his *Travels* quoted, iii. 417.
 Charity, i. 331, ii. 354, iv. 107; that is injustice, ii. 212; indiscriminate, iii. 96, iv. 105; public prevalence of, iv. 101, 106.
 Charles I., iv. 459, 460, v. 13, 310; his 'Twelve Good Rules,' ii. 39, l. 232, 82; and his officers, iii. 455; learning, &c., in his time, iv. 459; orators in his parliament, iii. 525.
 Charles II., iii. 201 n., v. 58, 330, 332; his court, Butler on, iv. 370, 371; his reign, iv. 62; his Spanish treaties, v. 58; his wit, &c., ii. 445; the age of, ii. 444; gallantry in his reign, iv. 87; literature of his time, ii. 444, iv. 461; and France, v. 15; and Waller, v. 160.
 Charles V., Emperor, v. 47.
 Charles VIII. of France, iv. 390.
 Charles XII. of Sweden, ii. 331.
 'Charles XII., some Particulars Relative to,' ii. 329.
 Charlevoix, Father, iv. 257; his 'History of Paraguay,' iv. 257 n.
 'Charlevoix's History of Paraguay' (criticism), 1757, iv. 257.
 Charms, Chinese, iii. 151 n.
 Charolais, Prince of, pardoned thrice for murder, iii. 146.
 Charteris, Colonel, ii. 305.
 "Chase, the, in meridian splendour," v. 171.
 Chastity of birds, ii. 135, v. 232.
 Chatel, John, ii. 341.
 Châtelet, Madame, and Voltaire, iv. 13.
 'Chatham, Lord, character of,' 1760, v. 412.
 Chaucer, iv. 417; and Barbour, iv. 440.
 Chaussery, Mdlle., iv. 202.
 "Cheapside, as they say in," iii. 291.
 Cheerfulness and melancholy, i. 188.

- Chelmsford, Goldsmith near, v. 217.
- Chelsea, iii. 148 n.; the Dwarf tavern there, v. 209 n.
- Chemist, Goldsmith a, i. 16.
- Chemists, the old, v. 146.
- Cheops, monument of, v. 209.
- Cheremon, v. 134.
- Cherokee chiefs in London, v. 202.
- Cherry-stones, carving, iii. 389.
- Chess, game, origin of, ii. 118, 134; the gods and, ii. 122, *et seq.*
- ‘Chess, Game of, Vida’s,’ about 1766, ii. 117-134; Jeffrey’s translation, ii. 110 n.
- Chessmen, ii. 117 n., 119 n.
- Chesterfield, Lord, iv. 416 n.; his alleged epigram on Beau Nash, iv. 111; his *Common Sense*, v. 409; Goldsmith’s Nobleman’s Letters attributed to him, v. 250 n.; his house in Greenwich Park, iv. 225 n.; on Bolingbroke, iv. 224 n.; and Beau Nash, iv. 125; and Dr. Dunkin, iv. 403.
- Chetwood, W. R., his ‘History of the Stage’ quoted, iv. 30 n.
- Chevy Chase, ii. 366.
- Cheyne, Dr., iv. 55; his vegetable diet, iv. 132, 153; and Beau Nash, iv., 125, 132, 152.
- Chiaro-oscuro, the inventor of, i. 338.
- Childbirth. *See* Lying-in, iii. 337.
- Childers, the race-horse, v. 211.
- Childers, Leonard, v. 211 n.
- Children, the thirty-two, of Count Abensberg, i. 73; Macduff’s wail for his (‘Macbeth’), i. 328; the vicar’s, i. 72; can never be too soon treated as men, v. 256; correction of, ii. 409; dependence of, in Paraguay, iv. 261; diet of, ii. 404; education of, v. 198; flattery of, ii. 407; Goldsmith’s love of, i. 48; health of, ii. 404; inuring them to cold, &c., ii. 404; joy in, ii. 436; “six-feet high,” v. 356; “three-feet high,” *ib.*; “sports of children satisfy the child,” ii. 11, l. 154; and servants, ii. 407, 410; the, and the village preacher, ii. 38, l. 183.
- Children educators, a society of. *See* Lilliputian Society.
- Chillingworth, iv. 461.
- China, actors, &c., in, iii. 2 n.; alphabet, &c., of, *ib.*; before the Deluge, iii. 39 n.; degeneracy of, iii. 238; dog-butchers in, v. 211; government in, iii. 30; industries in, iii. 2 n.; learning in, iii. 2 n.; love in, iii. 412; manners, &c., in, iii. 1 n., 18; mourning customs of, iii. 2 n.; religion of, iii. 1 n.; science in, iii. 2 n.; wild lands of, iii. 38; women and marriage in, iii. 2 n., 413; speculations on its antiquity, iii. 333; theory of its Egyptian origin, iii. 334; European ignorance of, iii. 333; a philosopher of, on life, &c., iii. 310; writers upon, iii. 2 n.; craze in England, the, iv. 350; and Europe, their histories compared, iii. 157; and Russia, iii. 374.
- ‘China,’ Sir John F. Davis’s, iii. 54 n. *See also* Chinese, &c.
- Chin-cough, the [A name for the whooping-cough], i. 254.
- Chinese, a, in Europe, ii. 416.
- Chinese, the, i. 437, iii. 9, 124; banquets, iii. 311; their seventeen books of ceremonies, iii. 149, 319; their faces, v. 200; feast of lanterns, iii. 87; their ideas of filial duty, iii. 158; their furniture, &c., iii. 396; gods and idols, iii. 418; gardens and gardening, i. 397, ii. 102, l. 142, iii. 54, 118, 396; history, iii. 158; humour, iii. 310; lover, and courtship, iii. 150; mandarins, iii. 121; novels, iii. 150 n., iv. 351 n.; pig-tails, iii. 150; poetry and plays, iv. 351; religion, iii. 10 n.; sacred books, iii. 129 n.; worship, &c., i. 343;

- writings, iii. 124; their characters and Egyptian hieroglyphics, iii. 335 n. *See also under* China, sham ornaments, furniture, &c., iii. 54, 124.
- 'Chinese Matron, The,' story of, iii. 65.
- Chinese Letters, i. 19. *See also* 'Citizen of the World.'
- 'Chinese Philosopher, The,' ii. 413, iii. 13, 14, 29. *See also* Lien Chi Altangi.
- Chinese Philosopher, his son, iii. 30, 82. *See also* Hingpo.
- 'Chinoises, Lettres,' D'Argens', iii. 1 n.
- Chinvang the chaste, iii. 277.
- Chitty, Lord Mayor, iii. 260 n.
- Chivalry, love and, iii. 421; at Queen Elizabeth's Court, v. 306.
- Choang and Hansi, story of, iii. 66.
- Choice spirit, dull as a, ii. 183.
- Choice Spirits, the, club, i. 250.
- Chong Fou, the, iii. 35.
- Chop-house, ii. 290. *See also* Coffee-house.
- Chopness, a, = spade, v. 401.
- Chop-sticks, iii. 54, 126.
- Chorier, Nicholas, iv. 419 n.
- Chorus (in drama), i. 348.
- Christ, i. 209; a reformer, iii. 496; his doctrine of humility, iii. 178.
- 'Christ, Life of,' Goldsmith's [? lost], i. 481.
- 'Christiad, The,' Vida's, ii. 118 n.
- Christian, a, v. 364; how he "can die," iv. 367; religion, the, iv. 393.
- Christian's Magazine*, the, i. 481 n.
- Christmas carols, i. 84.
- 'Chronicle,' Goldsmith's preface to (?), i. 481.
- Chrysostom on custom and law, ii. 428.
- Chûang-tsze, iii. 69 n.
- Church, appearance at, i. 116; going "genteelly" to, i. 109; preferments, v. 347; service at St. Paul's, iii. 154.
- Church (Papal), cruelty and luxury of, v. 292; dissoluteness of the priests, &c., v. 292, 299.
- "Church, the decent," ii. 33, l. 12.
- Church, Ralph, his edition of the 'Faerie Queen,' iv. 333.
- Churches, heathen deities in, ii. 413.
- Churchill, Charles, ii. 4 n.; his 'The Ghost,' i. 254, ii. 474 n.; his 'Rosciad,' iii. 295 n., 406.
- Churchwarden, a bad, v. 354.
- Chusi, Emperor, iii. 173.
- Cibber, Colley, i. 57, 301 n., 399, ii. 309, iv. 30 n., 54; and Vanbrugh, their 'Provoked Husband,' iv. 428.
- Cibber, Mrs., i. 301 n., ii. 339.
- Cibber, Theophilus, i. 301; his (or Shiels') 'Lives of the Poets,' *ib.*; his wife, ii. 339 n.
- Cicalata, academy, ii. 418.
- Cicero, i. 364, iv. 318, 362; his Tusculan Questions, ii. 411, iv. 318; on eloquence, i. 352; on Homer, i. 355; on old age, i. 275; on ruins, &c., iv. 363; on translating, i. 336; Erasmus on, iv. 318; Montaigne on, iv. 319; and Homer, i. 344.
- Cimento, Academy of, Florence, v. 148.
- Cimmerians, the, iv. 305.
- Cineas the Swiss = Voltaire, ii. 317.
- Cinna (pseudonym), ii. 49, l. 78.
- Circassia, iii. 224; love in, iii. 412; the women of, iii. 413.
- Circassian Tartars, iii. 222.
- Circumstances, scurvy, Goldsmith's, i. 462.
- Cities, living in, ii. 401; ruined, ii. 377, iii. 423.
- 'Citizen of the World, The,' 1760-62, iii. 1-466.
- (notes, &c., on), i. 19, 322, 323, 437, ii. 193, 413, iii. 13, 43, 74, 86, 87, 95, 129, 246, 312, 373, 377, 378, 446, 447, 458, 496, 531, iv. 41, 229.
- (criticisms on), i. 53, iii. 9, 194, 410.

- ‘Citizen of the World, The,’ (cross-references to), iii. 459, 470, 475, iv. 20, 38, 41, 42, 71, 88, 93, 143, 239, 249, 285, 351, 361, 406, 412, 418, 428, 447, 457, 465, 479, 484, 496, 505, 510, 512, v. 18, 23, 29, 236, 263, 317, 357.
- Citizen’s wife, a, ii. 328.
- City, a great, its virtues and vices, iii. 374; a populous, the best university, iii. 522; dames, ii. 114, l. 19; feasts, addresses, processions, &c., i. 304.
- ‘City Night Piece, A,’ 1759, ii. 376, iii. 422.
- City Road, the, iii. 441 n.
- Civility, French, iii. 292.
- Civilization and barbarism, iii. 41, 305; animals lose their spirit in civilized communities, v. 213. *See also* Polite, &c.
- Clairon, Mdle., ii. 338.
- Clap, a, = a disease, iv. 379 n.
- Clare, Lord, i. 460, 464; the ‘Haunch of Venison,’ an epistle to him, ii. 46; and Goldsmith, i. 24, ii. 50, 117.
- Clarendon, the, Albemarle Street, The Club there, i. 23 n.
- Clarendon, Lord, and his ‘History,’ iv. 459, 461.
- Clarissa (in the ‘Grumbler’), ii. 294, 295 n.
- Clarissimi, Præclarissimi, &c., iii. 377.
- Clark’s Ovid, iv. 326.
- Clarke, actor, ii. 146.
- Clarke, Dr. Samuel, ii. 447, v. 343; and Beau Nash, iv. 125.
- Clarke, and Butler’s ‘Remains,’ iv. 368 n.
- Clarke and Taylor duel, iv. 69.
- Classics, i. 326; study of, i. 334, 335.
- ‘Clay, water their,’ i. 279.
- Cleland, iv. 408 n.
- ‘Cleopatra,’ Sir J. Reynolds’, i. 319 n.
- Clergy, the, iii. 412; the English, iii. 157, ii. 424; the English and Popular Preachers, i. 270; admonition of, iv. 129; early, and the popes, v. 274, 280; but few resigned their benefices at the Reformation, v. 304; as flatterers, iii. 398; promotion of, ii. 427, iii. 500; a visitation dinner, iii. 217.
- Clergy (Popish), vices of, v. 286, 283. *See also* Church, &c.
- Clergyman, a country (Mr. Stanton), iv. 491.
- Clergymen, iii. 101, 192; less wanted than schoolmasters, ii. 402.
- Clerkenwell, ii. 468, 473 n.; History of, Pink’s and Wood’s, ii. 468 n.
- Clifford, Martin, iv. 373.
- Climate, effects of, iii. 340, v. 85.
- Clive, Kitty, ii. 396.
- Cloncalla, or Forney, i. 61 n.
- Cloth, “thunder-and-lightning,” i. 116.
- Closeness, iii. 105.
- Clothes, v. 253; fine, power of, i. 88, 95, iv. 87; laced, iii. 195.
- Clouds, v. 194.
- ‘Clown’s Reply, The,’ 1753, ii. 75.
- Club, a, of authors, iii. 109, 111; at Cateaton, i. 260.
- Club, The, i. 23, 37, 459; Goldsmith and, i. 23. *See also* Literary Club, the.
- ‘Clubs, a Description of Various,’ 1759, i. 249.
- (cross-reference) iv. 466.
- Clubs, ii. 260, 272; gambling, iv. 149 n.; workmen’s, ii. 385.
- Coan, John, dwarf, v. 208.
- Coat, Goldsmith’s bloom-coloured, i. 42; Goldsmith’s silk, which made him “look like a fool,” i. 460; Goldsmith’s “spring-velvet,” i. 465, ii. 107.
- Cobbler, a philosophic, iii. 243; his stall, iii. 244.
- Cobblers and kings, iii. 355.
- Cocks, English, iii. 340.
- Cockchafer, the, v. 184.
- Cock-fighting, ii. 272.
- Cockneyisms, iv. 292.

- 'Cock-Lane Ghost, Transactions . . respecting the,' 1762, ii. 457.
 — (notes, &c., on), i. 245, 254, 259, 478, ii. 458.
 Cock-Lane Ghost, the, *Annual Register* account, ii. 474 n.; inquiry and report upon, ii. 472; *Gentleman's Magazine* account, ii. 474 n.; Walpole's account, ii. 471 n.; and the Methodists, ii. 471 n.; Dr. Johnson and, ii. 474 n.
 Cock Pit, the, iv. 149.
 Code Frederique, the, ii. 428.
 Code Napoleon, the, ii. 428 n.
 Coffee-house acquaintance, iii. 206.
 Coffee-houses, i. 249, iii. 23, 24, iv. 434; authors at the, i. 157; at Bath, iv. 73, 74, 120, 132 n.; life in, i. 320; new books at, iii. 214; as news-centres, iv. 465. *See also* by name, Jonathan's, &c.
 Coglione, iii. 133.
 Cognoscento, the art of being a, i. 165.
 Coinage of George III., iii. 434.
 Coke and Hales, iii. 360.
 Coley (?), ii. 47, l. 27.
 Colin, battle of. *See* Kölin.
 Colman, George, i. 40 n., 457, 459, ii. 214, 216, iii. 406 n., 409, iv. 248 n.; his 'Connoisseur,' iv. 248; his law suit, i. 460; his letters to Goldsmith, i. 455 n.; his belief in witchcraft, ii. 459; and the 'Beggars' Opera,' iii. 321 n.; and the 'Good-Natured Man,' i. 27, 455 n., ii. 145; and 'She Stoops,' i. 32, 467, v. 175 n.; Goldsmith's letters to, i. 32, 466.
 Colman, G., the younger, his story of Goldsmith when he (Colman) was a child, i. 48.
 Collections, Goldsmith: *See* Corney, Collier, Crossley, Heber, &c.
 Collectors, iii. 170, 182; picture, &c., iii. 132.
 College, Goldsmith at, i. 5, 6, 60 n., 61 n., iii. 100; life at, ii. 84, l. 2; pranks, ii. 84.
 College, Goody Two-Shoes', v. 371.
 Colleges, conservatism of, iii. 523; endowments of, iii. 501; rewards in, *ib.*; and the advancement of learning, iii. 523; expensive architecture of our, iii. 526; pride and distinctions in our, iii. 526. *See also* Universities, &c.
 Collett, Master of the Ceremonies, Bath, iv. 154 n.
 Collier, or Collyer, Joseph, i. 452, v. 65 n.
 Collier, J. P., his Goldsmith collections, ii. 295 n.
 Colliers, distressed, and Beau Nash, iv. 102.
 Collins, B., printer, of Salisbury, i. 67, iii. vii. *See also* under 'Vicar of Wakefield.'
 Collins, Tom, imitator of a sow and pigs, iii. 392.
 Collins, W., poet, i. 384, iii. 508; date of his death corrected, iii. 508 n.; his madness, iii. 508; his Oriental Eclogues, iii. 508, v. 158; Goldsmith's early criticism of, iii. 508, v. 158; Goldsmith's use of, ii. 105, 106.
 Colonies, v. 15; English, origin of, &c., v. 10; when burdensome, iii. 64; growth of, iii. 93; settling new, iii. 64, 91, 93; trade with, v. 16. *See also* Canada, &c.
 Colonists, American, Goldsmith predicts the War of Independence, v. 32.
 Colours, iv. 244; in China, iii. 32; any but white unlucky for a wedding, ii. 190.
 Columba, Signora, i. 431.
 Comb, Polly, v. 362.
 Combat, trial by, i. 281.
 Comedy, ii. 92, l. 1; French, ii. 219 n.; genteel and high, ii. 145, iv. 427; high and "low," iii. 515; humorous and senti-

- mental, i. 398, ii. 54, l. 66, 145;
 Italian, in Holland, i. 428;
 middle (Greek), i. 351; new
 comedy (Greek), *ib.*; Aristotle
 on, i. 349; Boileau on, i. 399; Dr.
 Johnson on, i. 33; origin of, i.
 347; and comic writers, iv. 427;
 and hyperbole, i. 381; and
 tragedy, i. 398, 402 n., ii. 54,
 l. 66. *See also* 'Sentimental
 Comedy, &c.
- "Comedy, Little" (Mrs. Bun-
 bury), ii. 94, l. 17.
- Comet, when the earth was a, v. 191.
- Comets, alarm as to, iii. 259, 345.
- Comfort, some, in every situation,
 i. 187.
- 'Comic Romance,' Scarron's,
 1774 (?), ii. 136.
- Comical, on being, i. 93.
- Comment and scholia, iv. 326.
- Commentaries, &c., iii. 478.
- Commentators, &c., ii. 397, iv.
 334, 380, 489, v. 257; rise of, iii.
 471; and critics, iii. 528. *See*
also Critics, Compilers, &c.
- Commerce, ii. 10, l. 140; foreign,
 and home industry, i. 150; and
 honour, ii. 9, l. 92; and liberty,
 v. 257; too much, iii. 94.
- Commercial spirit, the, iii. 25.
- Commodities (head-dress), i. 299, v.
 398.
- Commodus, statues of, ii. 397.
- Common-Councilman, a, on Ad-
 dresses to Royalty, i. 304; an-
 other letter by a, i. 307.
- Common-Councilmen, i. 305, ii.
 290.
- 'Common Sense,' Chesterfield's
 and Lyttelton's, v. 409.
- 'Common Sense,' T. Paine's, v.
 409.
- Commons, the, and the poor, ii.
 42, 305.
- House of, its beginning, v.
 284; its Speaker, iv. 434; early
 reports of the *Gent.'s Mag.*, iv.
 435 n.; an ultra-independent
 member of, iv. 435; and the
 king (Charles I.), v. 311, 316.
- Commonwealth, a, i. 167.
- Companions, the best, ii. 35, l. 61;
 ladies', i. 113.
- Company, iii. 191, 203; of fools,
 iii. 210; good, i. 146, iii. 503;
 "very good," iv. 57; in afflic-
 tion, i. 189; knowing your, i.
 118; in London, i. 249; singing
 in, i. 261.
- 'Compendium of Biography.' *See*
 Biography.
- Compilation works, Goldsmith's, i.
 21, 462; errors of fact in them,
 iv. 458 n.; Johnson on, i. 29.
- Compilers, i. 246, ii. 368, iii. 74,
 283, 499, v. 257, 263. *See also*
 Commentators, &c.
- Complexion of races, v. 208.
- Compliments, v. 65.
- Composers, ii. 453.
- Composition, i. 451; Goldsmith's,
 i. 27; in painting, i. 133.
- 'Composition, On Original' (criti-
 cism), 1759, iv. 364.
- Comte, Louis le. *See* Le Comte.
- Concatenation, ii. 227, v. 129.
- Concealment, iii. 201.
- Condottieri, Italian, iv. 391.
- Conely's, Mrs., "Great Room,"
 Soho Square, ii. 97 n.
- Confidence, generous, of Alexan-
 der, i. 333; the land of, iii. 142.
- Confucius, iii. 2 n., 74, 128, 129 n.,
 159, 162, 178, 239; quoted, iii.
 446; his 'Lun-Yu,' iii. 31;
 maxims, iii. 31; on happiness,
 iii. 242; on luxury, iii. 43; on
 silence, iii. 218.
- Confusi, Italian academy, ii. 418.
- Congelation, laws of, v. 149.
- Congo, iii. 147, 415; husbands in,
 iii. 337.
- Congreve, W., i. 147, ii. 389, 445,
 iv. 30, 160, 418, 427, v. 344;
 Voltaire on, iv. 30; and Ireland,
 i. 59 n.
- Conjuror, Goldsmith a, i. 49; the,
 and the tailor, iii. 230.
- Conjurors, iii. 90.
- 'Connoisseur, The,' iii. 409 n.
 (criticism), 1757, iv. 248.

- 'Connoisseur, The' (cross-reference to), iii. 409.
 Conscience is a coward, i. 122.
 'Conscious Lovers,' Steele's, iv. 428.
 Considering Caps, Goody Two-Shoes', v. 389.
 Consolation and sorrow, i. 78.
 Consolations of philosophy and religion, the, i. 209.
 Constable, the, outrun, i. 459.
 Constancy, iii. 446.
 Constitution, happiness depends on, i. 84, 275, ii. 334.
 — the English, i. 149, i. 312, iii. 188, 301 n., 456, v. 312, 316; its beginning, v. 272; destroyed by the Parliamentarians, temp. Charles I., v. 316. *See also* England, &c.
 Contarine, Jane, Goldsmith's cousin. *See* Lawder, Mrs.
 — Rev. Thomas, Goldsmith's uncle, i. 4 n., 8, 12, 15, 441, 457 n., iv. (?) 159, 483 n.; Goldsmith's letters to, i. 418, 424, 426.
 Content, iii. 433; lost in the pursuit of novelty, i. 155; torpid, iii. 104.
 Contented, be, v. 379.
 Contentment, iii. 351; imagination a foe to, i. 395.
 Contradicted, the man who never, iii. 290.
 'Contradictions of the World, On the' (translation from Voltaire), 1759, ii. 410.
 Contraries, interpreting (women) by, i. 89.
 Controversy, advertising by, iii. 407; Olivia's skill in, i. 97.
 Conversation, i. 188, 444; English, iii. 23; Goldsmith's, i. 44; with great men, iii. 395; with women, iii. 419; great men lacking in, i. 46.
 Conviction, the genius of, i. 265.
 Conway, George, i. 423.
 Cook, of Bath, iv. 80.
 Cook, Captain, iii. 389 n.; his first voyage, ii. 95 n.
 Cook, Gaffer, v. 362.
 Cooke, "Conversation," his anecdotes of Goldsmith, ii. 217 n., iii. 441 n., v. 153, 168, 200, 250.
 Cookery, French, iii. 293.
 'Cookery, Goldsmith's Characteristical,' Garrick's verse on, ii. 57 n.
 Cooks, the Devil sends, ii. 57 n.
 Cooper, Thomas, M.D., ii. 466.
 Coote, Mr., friend of Parnell, iv. 175.
 'Copy of verses,' Dr. Burdock's, i. 113.
 Copy-money, iv. 162, 381.
 Coquetry, iii. 106; rebuked, iii. 329.
 Coquette, a, ii. 327.
 Coquetting, ii. 85, l. 52.
 Cordonnier. *See* Hyacinthe.
 Corelli (composer), ii. 453.
 Cork, Goldsmith's visit to, i. 8, 413; Goldsmith's friend near, i. 414.
 Cork, Lord, Goldsmith's Nobleman's Letters attributed to him, v. 250.
 Corn cutting, iii. 390.
 Cornacini (singer), ii. 452, 454.
 Cornbury, Viscount, iv. 217, 226 n.
 Corneille, i. 46, ii. 356, iv. 422.
 Cornelius Nepos, i. 334.
 Cornets (headdress), i. 299.
 Corney, Bolton, his Goldsmith collections, ii. 117; his edition of Goldsmith's Poems, *ib.*
 Cornwall, pilchards off, v. 107.
 Coromandel, Goldsmith's proposed settlement there, i. 17, 442.
 Coronation Procession of George III., the, i. 307; Goldsmith's essays on, i. 201; the "addresses" on, &c., i. 304, iii. 378.
 Coronation stone at Westminster Abbey, iii. 52.
 Corporation, a, poet, iii. 404; the speech of a, i. 255.
 Corpse, a handsome, ii. 161.
 Correction of children, ii. 409.
 Cosmo III. of Tuscany, iv. 392.

- "Cot, the shelter'd," ii. 33, l. 10.
 Cotemporary for contemporary, iv. 368, 420.
 Cottage life, v. 239.
 Cottiers, eviction of. *See* Lissoy, Eviction, &c.
 Cougar, the, v. 88.
 Counsel, good, rejected, i. 196.
 Counsellor, the, iii. 361.
 Country, love of, i. 269, 431; the, going to ruin (Croaker's view), ii. 153.
 — assembly, a, iv. 123; excursions, Goldsmith's, ii. 32, v. 182: *See also* Goldsmith's residences; fireside, a, i. 90; life, and town, iii. 336, iv. 62, 497; squire, a, iii. 197; town, a, iv. 474.
 Courage, v. 286; of Englishmen, dogs, and cocks, iii. 340. *See also* Bravery, English courage, &c.
 Courante (dance), ii. 298.
 Court, employments at, iii. 395; mourning, iii. 356; vermin-killer proposed, iii. 396.
 'Court Calendar,' a, iii. 392.
 Court of Requests, iv. 434.
 'Court Register,' the, ii. 186, iii. 396.
 Courtier, the, ii. 78, l. 46.
 Courtiers, iii. 241; Eastern and English, iii. 396; in Shakspeare's time, iv. 425.
 Courtship, days of, i. 76; terrors of, ii. 234.
 Cousins, ii. 234.
 Covenanters. *See* Scotch Covenanters.
 Covent Garden Theatre, iii. 294; Gye of, iv. 480 n.; 'Beggars' Opera' at, iv. 483 n.; 'Douglas' at, iv. 249; 'Good-Natured Man' at, i. 455 n., ii. 146; 'The Grumbler' at, ii. 294; 'She Stoops to Conquer' at, ii. 216-17, 219 n., 292 n. *See also* Beard, Colman, Rich, &c.
 Cow, the, is the poor man's pride and riches, v. 212.
 Cowley, A., ii. 447, iv. 335, 417; Pope on, iv. 168.
 Cowper, W., i. 54; his essays, iv. 248 n.; on "strokes" of wit, iii. 193 n.
 Cows and the wolf, ii. 131, l. 519.
 Crab or lobster? iii. 426.
 Crabs and lobsters, v. 109.
 Cracovius Putridus, iii. 170.
 Cradock, Joseph, ii. 95, 96, 97 n.; his 'Memoirs,' i. 467 n., 468 n.; his epilogue for 'She Stoops to Conquer,' ii. 110 n., 290; he says he "altered" 'She Stoops,' i. 467 n., ii. 290; his 'Zobeide,' ii. 95.
 'Craftsman, The,' iii. 508 n., iv. 213.
 Crane, the, v. 221.
 Cranham Hall, Essex, v. 177 n.
 Cranmer, Archbishop, iv. 445, v. 298.
 Crapandina = toad-stone, v. 240 n.
 Cratinus, i. 349, 350.
 Crator, the Athenian, iv. 430.
 Crawford, Mrs. (actress), iv. 249 n.
 Creation, the, v. 132; Buffon's theory of, v. 192; Whiston's theory, v. 190.
 Creation's charms, ii. 7, l. 37.
 Crebillon, jun., iii. 495.
 Crecy, and "old Edward's sons," ii. 104, l. 216.
 Credit, iii. 290 n.
 Credulity, ii. 439, 459, 477.
 Creech's 'Horace,' i. 353.
 Creighton. *See* Crighton.
 Creolian, a, i. 158.
 Cricket on the hearth, the, ii. 25.
 Crime, the career of, i. 196.
 Criminal laws, reform of, and Goldsmith's early work in, iii. 301 n.
 Crighton, ii. 367.
 Crimp, Lady, iii. 269.
 Cripplegate, the lame dancing-master, ii. 220.
 Crises in England, i. 312.
 Crispe, Mr., his registry office for voluntary slaves, i. 162.
 Critic, a severe, i. 298; the, Horace quoted, i. 331.

- 'Critical and Monthly' (? contributions by Goldsmith), i. 481.
- Critical Review*, i. 26, iii. 511, iv. 232 n., v. 414 n.; Goldsmith's contributions to, i. 18, iv. 232, 303 n., 322 n., 348 n., 350 n., 364 n., 409 n., 455 n., v. 413, 414; Hawkins' (W.), reply to, iv. 399; Marriott's (T.), answer to, iv. 382; and A. Hamilton, iv. 410 n.; and David Hume, iv. 295 n.; and the *Monthly*, iii. 50 n. *See also* 'Critical and Monthly,' above.
- Criticism, ii. 4, iii. 358, 466, 491, iv. 332, 353, v. 154; French, ii. 178; in Germany, iii. 483; Grub Street, ii. 309; of living authors, iv. 421; popular, iii. 231; of the stage, iv. 250; should be national, iii. 535; is the natural destroyer of polite learning, iii. 510; on resenting, iv. 382; and taste, i. 326. *See also* Critics, &c.
- Criticisms, Goldsmith's, 1757-1760, iv. 231.
- (notes, &c., on), iv. 232, 332, 396, 400. *See also* under *Critical and Monthly Reviews*, &c.
- (criticism of), i. 53, iv. 232.
- (cross-references to), iii. 532, iv. 10, 29, 39, 424.
- Criticisms, Goldsmith's, on Shakspeare, i. 364-70.
- Critics, i. 324, 437, ii. 363, 388, 395, iii. 50, 74, 193, 214, 283, 395, 406, 408, 465, 480; the age of, iii. 475, v. 257; in China, iii. 214; Goldsmith and his, iv. 56; partiality of, iv. 419; rise of, iii. 471; are spiders, &c., iv. 406; Voltaire on, iii. 505.
- Croaker, Mr., ii. 153; and Johnson's *Suspensum*, i. 27 n., ii. 193 n.; Shuter as, i. 27 n.
- Croker, J. W., on Boswell, i. 52; on Goldsmith's burlesque elegies, ii. 89 n.; his edition of Lord Hervey's memoirs, iv. 211 n.; his attribution of 'Prince Titi' to Frederick Prince of Wales exposed, iv. 185 n.
- Cromwell, Oliver, iii. 456, v. 190 n.; his character, v. 330; his rise, v. 320, 329; his speeches, &c., iv. 460; on Magna Charta, i. 312; Cooper's portrait of, iv. 375; Butler on (?), iv. 375; Waller on, v. 160; and the Dutch, v. 14; and the Independents, v. 330; and L'Estrange, ii. 445; and Spain, v. 14, 57; and Spanish America, v. 57.
- Cromwell, Thomas, iv. 444.
- Crooked-lane, i. 276 n., ii. 150, 246, iii. 267.
- Cross (brewer), iv. 413 n.
- Cross-purposes, game, ii. 334.
- 'Cross Readings,' Whitfoord's, ii. 60, l. 24.
- Crossley, Jas., his Goldsmith collections, ii. 457, v. 60, 412.
- Crowd, the, iii. 203, 243. *See also* Mob, &c.
- Crudeli, Tomaso, an oration by, ii. 418. * * * This physician and poet will be found mentioned in Vernon Lee's articles on the 'Academy of Arcadi,' as referred to under Italy, Academies of.
- Cruelty to animals, iii. 56.
- Crump, Lord, iii. 269.
- Crump, Mrs., ii. 254.
- Crying, the comfort of, ii. 249.
- Cudworth, v. 343.
- Cullender, Dr., Beau Nash and, iv. 102.
- Culloden, battle of, iii. 450.
- Culture of head and heart, i. 334; moral before scientific, i. 331.
- Cumbercourt, Lord, ii. 167.
- Cumberland, Duke of, ii. 48 n., 82.
- Cumberland, R., his account of the first night of 'She Stoops,' i. 33; on Goldsmith, i. 44, 47, 52; Goldsmith's epitaph on, ii. 52, l. 9, 54, l. 61.
- Cunning, i. 195.
- Cunningham, Peter, his edition of

- Goldsmith's works, i. 323, 331, 346, ii. 51, 117, 457, iii. 71, iv. 344, 357, 376, 405, 416, 509, 513, v. 67, 250, 408, 409, 412; on Goldsmith's theory of poetry, iii. 513.
- Cupid's shaft, ii. 84, l. 90.
- Curiosity, iii. 33, 169, iv. 431; innocent, v. 151.
- Curtain-lectures, ii. 85, l. 49.
- Curtain Road, Shoreditch, iv. 413 n.
- Curry-comb-maker, Mr., i. 254.
- Cushing, actor, ii. 146.
- Custom, veneration for, iii. 370.
- 'Custom and Laws Compared,' 1759, ii. 428.
- (cross-reference to), iii. 475.
- Customer, a good, i. 302.
- Customs opposed to statutes, ii. 413.
- Cute, ii. 191.
- Cuteness, ii. 162.
- Cutting blocks with a razor, ii. 53, l. 42.
- Cyclopædias, origin of, i. 37 n.
- Cyclops, the, in Homer and Virgil, i. 380.
- Cymbeline dirge, Collins's, ii. 106 n.
- Cynamolci, the, iii. 60.
- 'Cyrillo Padovano, the Noted Sleep-walker,' 1773, iv. 506.
- ✓ — (cross-reference to), v. 206.
- D., the signature, ? Goldsmith's, iv. 233 n.; another D., v. 410.
- "Daciers, the Scaligers and," i. 437, ii. 363.
- Da Corsin and Julia Bellamano, iii. 422.
- Dadiki and George I., iv. 280.
- Daily Advertiser*, ii. 390 n.; Goldsmith's letter in, i. 469.
- D'Alembert, iii. 163, 495, iv. 363.
- Damien, iii. 28; tortures of, Voltaire on, ii. 341.
- "Damien's bed of steel," ii. 19, l. 436.
- Dammee! i. 302.
- Danæus de Sortiariis, i. 262.
- Dance, learning to, ii. 297.
- Dances, various, ii. 297; at theatres, ii. 452.
- Dancing, ii. 13, l. 248; stage, iii. 80; in Scotland, i. 421; its union with poetry originally, i. 342; worship by, i. 343; and music, iv. 296.
- Dancing-master, a, cured of madness by music, v. 207.
- Dancing-masters, ii. 77, l. 35, 296, iii. 196.
- Danes and Normans, v. 269; and Saxons, *ib.*
- Daniel, George, ii. 51 n.
- Dante, iii. 162, 479, 512, iv. 378.
- D'Anvers, Caleb, assumed name of Nicholas Amhurst as editor of the *Craftsman*, iv. 214 n.
- D'Arc, Chevalier, iii. 511.
- D'Argens, Marquis, iii. 163, 495, iv. 42.
- D'Arget, letter of Voltaire to, ii. 317.
- Dark ages, the, iii. 239. *See also* Obscure ages, &c.
- Dartmouth, Lord, ii. 471 n.
- Dashes, &c., in writing, "to advertise a joke," iii. 25, 192.
- Dates and Facts, v. 257.
- Daubenton, M., v. 121.
- Daun's capture of Finck, &c., iv. 475.
- Daures, the, iii. 18, 39, 44, 65.
- D'Avenant, Dr. Charles, ii. 448.
- Davenant, William, iv. 372, 373.
- Davenhill, W., publisher, v. 150 n.
- D'Averios, execution of, iii. 27 n.
- Davies, Miles, iii. 483; on big and little books, *ib.*
- Davies, T., iv. 156 n., 180 n., v. 165, 166 n.; his 'Life of Garrick,' different editions, i. 63 n.; on Goldsmith, i. 44, v. 182; Goldsmith's agreements with him, i. 485.
- Davila, iv. 388.
- Davis, Moll, female soldier, i. 317.
- Davis, Mr., actor, ii. 294.
- Davis, Sir John (poet), iv. 58.
- Davis, Sir John F., iii. 54 n.; his

- work on China, iii. 54 n., 69 n., 76 n., 335 n.
- Dawley, Uxbridge, Bolingbroke's "farm" at, iv. 211, 215.
- Dawson, Mr., "a travelling rake," iv. 492.
- Dawson, Sally, v. 363.
- Day, Sir John, v. 173, 174 n.
- Day, Judge, on Goldsmith, iii. 263 n., v. 173 n.
- Dead, the, elegies, &c., on, iv. 135; praising, iii. 50.
- Death, i. 212, v. 388; King, ii. 100, l. 69; Chinese view of, iii. 44; English view of, iii. 44; fear of, iii. 276, iv. 132; friendly, ii. 100, l. 85; and life, Poggi on, iv. 134.
- Goldsmith's, April 4, 1774, i. 39.
- punishments, iii. 299. *See also* Capital punishments.
- and the Lady (ballad), i. 139, 252.
- "Death! O, thou pleasing end of human woe," &c., iv. 96.
- Death-bed customs, iii. 44.
- Death-watch, the, iii. 339.
- Debt, a, and a favour, iv. 60; the National, i. 316 n., v. 341; three ways of getting into, i. 302.
- Debtors, arrest of, iii. 298.
- Debtors' prisons, i. 200, ii. 336, iii. 21.
- Debts, Goldsmith's, i. 10, 12, 15, 40 n., 410 n., iii. 117 n. *See also* Difficulties, Goldsmith's, his memoranda, &c.
- paying, ii. 353.
- 'Decameron,' Boccaccio's, ii. 313 n.
- 'Deceit and Falsehood,' 1759, ii. 438.
- "Declare off," iii. 174.
- Decorations. *See* Honours.
- Dedication fees (book), i. 158.
- D'Ensenada, Marquis, iii. 488.
- Deering, Sir Edward, iv. 459.
- "Defender of the Faith," Henry VIII. the first, v. 295.
- 'Défense du Mondain, La,' Voltaire's, iv. 39.
- De Foe, i. 97, ii. 450.
- Deformed nature, v. 74.
- Deformity of person and taste, ii. 307.
- Degree, as M.B., Goldsmith's, i. 11; *ex speciali gratia*, Swift's, i. 327.
- De Guigne, M., on ancient china, iii. 335 n.
- 'Deity, The,' Boyse's, v. 151.
- Deity, the, v. 195; man and, *ib.*
- Delany, Mrs., iv. 122.
- Deluge, China before the, iii. 39 n.
- Demetrius Phalereus, i. 363; on hyperbole, i. 378.
- Demi-gods, heroes, &c., iii. 416.
- Democracies, v. 331.
- Democracy and monarchy, iii. 188.
- Democritus, iv. 268.
- 'Demonology,' Scott's, quoted, ii. 443 n.
- Demonstration, the Genius of, iii. 140.
- De Morgan, Professor, on Rev. Theaker Wilder and Goldsmith, i. 61.
- Demosthenes, i. 335, 362, 364.
- Denham, Sir John, iv. 422; his 'Cooper's Hill,' v. 156; on the Thames, i. 385; and Butler, iv. 374, 379.
- Denmark, iii. 212; polite learning in, iii. 488; and England, v. 22; and Prussia, v. 35.
- 'Denmark, History of the Revolutions in,' Dr. Andrews', i. 470.
- Dennis (critic), iv. 177; and Addison, i. 402 n.
- Dennis, Madame (Voltaire's niece), ii. 318, iv. 46 n.
- Dentrecolles, Père, iii. 69 n.
- Dependence, iii. 102, 449.
- Dependents, iii. 367; and friends, iii. 249.
- Depopulation of villages, &c., ii. 18, l. 402, 31, 138 n., v. 356. *See also* 'Deserted Village,' &c.
- Derham, Dr., v. 71, 209.
- Derrick, Samuel, iv. 138, 154 n. *See also* Wilks.
- Derry, siege of. *See* Londonderry.

- Dervises, the, i. 343.
 Derwentwater, Lord, execution of, iv. 279 n.
 Des Cartes, ii. 321, iv. 5, 268, v. 146, 147; and Newton, v. 148. *See also* Cartesius.
 Descent, Irish pride of, iv. 286.
 Desert sands, iii. 15.
 'Deserted Village, The,' 1770, ii. 31-45.
 — lines attributed to Johnson in, i. 27, ii. 18, 45, 141, iii. 449.
 — locality of Auburn, i. 59, ii. 18, 138, v. 233, 236 n.
 — and 'Goody Two-Shoes,' v. 350, 355, 356.
 — and Sir J. Reynolds' 'Resignation,' ii. 36 n.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 3, 4, 27, 32, ii. 31, 83, iii. 43, 94, iv. 156, 180, v. 175.
 — (criticism of), i. 55.
 — (cross-references to), iii. 424, 447, 449, iv. 250, 403, v. 88, 175, 236.
 Des Fontaines. *See* Fontaines.
 Deshouliers (poet), [? Mdme. Deshoulières, 1638-1694], iv. 338.
 Desmaretz, iii. 498.
 Despair, i. 264, ii. 376, iii. 422, v. 201.
 Despotism fostered by standing armies, v. 27; and freedom, v. 316.
 Despréaux, iv. 341. *See also* Boileau.
 Destouches, iii. 495.
 De Torcy. *See* Torcy, De.
 Dettingen, battle of, iii. 450, iv. 470.
 Devil, the, and his spirits, i. 262; exorcising the, i. 284; friendship of the, i. 193; a gift to the, ii. 80, l. 20; his mark, ii. 201; possessed of the, i. 283; raising the, rules for, i. 262.
 — tavern, Kenrick's lectures there, ii. 55, l. 86.
 Devonshire, Goldsmith's projected visit to, i. 459.
 Devonshire, Earl of (temp. Alfred), v. 271.
 Devonshire, Duke of (1741), v. 211 n.
 De Witts, the, of Holland, v. 53.
 Diallion, Madame, i. 429.
 Diamastigosis, festival to Diana, i. 343 n.
 Diamonds and Bristol stones, i. 307.
 Diana, Diamastigosis festival to, i. 343.
 Dibbins, Mr., i. 255.
 Dibdin, his 'History of the Stage,' quoted, iii. 294 n.
 Dick Doleful, ii. 155.
 Dick Ginger, ii. 272.
 Dick Muggins, ii. 222.
 Dictators and Stadtholders, v. 53.
 Dictionary makers, iv. 312, 313.
 Dictionary of Arts and Sciences, Goldsmith's projected, i. 37, 471.
 Diderot, iii. 163, 495, 498, iv. 25; against Christianity, iii. 495.
 Diets, German, v. 42.
 Difficulties, Goldsmith's early, i. 15, 19, 37, 38, 245, 437, 445-6, ii. 334, iii. 117 n., v. 204 n. *See also* Debts, Goldsmith's, and the early Letters, &c.
 Diffidence, ii. 164.
 Digbye, Lord [temp. Chas. I.], iv. 459.
 Diggory, ii. 231.
 Dignities, supporting, iii. 242.
 Dignity of Human Nature, the, i. 405.
 Dignity of man, ii. 332.
 Dilke, C. W., his edition of Pope's Letters quoted, iv. 161 n.
 Dilly, publisher, i. 18, v. 3 n.
 Dimension as a source of the sublime, iv. 244.
 Dine, Mr., singer, ii. 97.
 Dingley, Mr., iv. 269 n.
 Dinner, a Visitation (of clergy), iii. 216.
 "Dinner Bell," the, Burke so called, ii. 53 n.
 Dinners, public, iii. 403.
 Diphilus, i. 351.
 Disappointments, iii. 103, 351.
 Discipline in armies, iii. 448.

- Discontent, popular, iii. 369.
 Discontented politician, a, i. 148.
 Discord, the Goddess of, iv. 471, 473.
 Discorides, v. 71.
 Discoveries, foreign, useful, ii. 383, 387. *See also* Exploration, Africa, &c.
 Disease, inherited, iii. 58.
 Diseases, revolutions of, v. 195.
 Disloyalty, v. 323.
 Disorderly house, a, i. 279.
 Disputations, open, at foreign universities, i. 13, 167; religious, v. 303.
 Disraeli, Isaac, quotes Miles Davies against big books, iii. 483 n.
 Dissipation = Relaxation, ii. 461.
 Dissipation, of care, i. 275, iii. 167, 203, 339, iv. 499; should be opposed to calamity, ii. 337, iii. 178.
 Distinction of dress, iii. 195.
 Distress, sensibility to, i. 82.
 Divine right, v. 169.
 Dobson, A., his edition of the 'Vicar : ' *See* Anodyne necklace, also under Gay, &c.
 Dobson, John, iv. 265.
 Doctor, the title, i. 465, ii. 107.
 "Dr." dropped by Goldsmith, v. 182 n.
 Doctors, ii. 113, iii. 90; quack, iii. 88.
 Doctrines, i. 125.
 Dodart, iv. 357.
 Dodd, Dr., ii. 55, l. 86; his *Christian's Magazine*, i. 481 n.
 Dodsley, James, and Goldsmith, i. 479, 483, 486.
 Dog, a plea for the, iii. 262; the, and the goose, iii. 230; instinct of the, v. 403; instinct of Goody Two-Shoes' dog, v. 383; the dog who got drunk and then became an abstainer, v. 404.
 Dog-headed men, iii. 60.
 Dog-house, the city, iii. 441 n.
 Dog-house bar, i. 255, iii. 440.
 Dog Jouler, Tommy Trip's, v. 388 n.
 Dog-butchers in China, v. 211.
 Dogs, English, iii. 340; mad, iii. 254; the fear of mad dogs ridiculed, iii. 258; know their enemies, v. 211.
 Doll Tearsheet, i. 279.
 Donne, Dr., iv. 423.
 'Don Quixote,' iv. 427. *See also* Cervantes.
 Dominican and Augustin friars, contention between, v. 294.
 Doomsday, the Earl of, iii. 117.
 Dosa, the brothers. *See* Zeck.
 Dosing, from the receipts in the 'Complete Housewife,' ii. 248.
 Dor, or May-bug, the, v. 184.
 Dorking, iv. 480 n.
 Dormouse, epitaph on a, v. 388.
 Dorset privateer, a, iii. 433.
 Dorsetshire, a letter from. *See* 'Alcanor and Eudisia;' St. Gregory's mission to, iii. 61.
 Double entendre, iii. 123, 106.
 'Double Transformation, The,' 1765 (?), ii. 84.
 — (notes, &c.), ii. 89.
 'Douglas' (criticism), 1757, iv. 249.
 — (notes), iii. 76, iv. 252.
 Douglas, Dr. John, Bishop Salisbury, &c., ii. 52, l. 10, 55, l. 79.
 Douglas, Vice-Admiral, v. 6 n.
 Doubtful works, Goldsmith's. *See* Scarron, 'Goody Two-Shoes,' 'Of Botany,' 'Bravery,' &c., Epigram on 'Rosciad,' the 'Belles Lettres,' essays, &c., also Omissions, note of, v. 408.
 Doubts, the Ocean of, iii. 142.
 Dove, Sir William, v. 370.
 Dover Cliff, Shakspeare on, i. 339.
 Dover, Goldsmith at, i. 458.
 Draco, laws of, iii. 299.
 Dragon, the, with many heads, &c., iii. 369 n.
 Drains, at St. Pancras, iii. 442.
 Drama, the, French, v. 346; rules of, iv. 250, 396; Voltaire and La Motte on, iv. 14; Greek and Roman, i. 345 *et sq.*, iv. 396.
 Dramatic writing, state of, i. 146.
 Dramatists, the old and the new, i. 146, iii. 518.
 Drayton, M., iii. 49, iv. 417.

- 'Dream, A,' 1760, iv. 477; [a visit to Elysium], 1760, iv. 486; [the Looking-glass of Lao], iii. 174; the Golden Dream of Goody Two-Shoes, v. 398; Goldsmith's, of the fair on the frozen Thames, iii. 11.
- Dreams, iv. 358; lucky, Mrs. Primrose's, i. 108.
- 'Dress, On,' 1759, ii. 324.
- Dress, ii. 41, l. 294, ii. 85, l. 40, ii. 222; in 1759, ii. 324; in different lands, iii. 18; ladies', sixteenth century, i. 285; love of, v. 202; distinction of, iii. 195; Goldsmith's attention to, i. 23, 42, v. 174 n.; and study, i. 76; and the vulgar, i. 258.
- Drew, Sarah. *See under Gay.*
- Drinking, English, iii. 336; in Russia, i. 300; to dissipate pain, i. 275.
- "Driving" for rent, i. 184, 185. *See also Eviction, &c.*
- Drop-stile (?), v. 386.
- Drowsy's, Dr., sermons, ii. 270.
- Druids, the, iv. 402; v. 264.
- Drumstick, Lord, iii. 207.
- Drunk, getting, iv. 464.
- Drunkard, the, ii. 377, iii. 422.
- Drunkenness, i. 286; Butler on, iv. 374.
- Drury Lane, ii. 82, iv. 472; the duchesses of, ii. 235.
- Drury Lane Theatre, iii. 294, iv. 194, 350; 'Beggars' Opera' at, iv. 483 n.; the carpet for dying scenes there, ii. 311; B. Victor, treasurer there, iii. 397; the way at, i. 297, 298.
- Druses, the, iv. 362.
- Drybone, Mr., iii. 103, 204.
- Dryden, i. 54 n., i. 146, ii. 445, iii. 347, iv. 173, 325, 367, 418, 425, v. 63, 334; his 'Alexander's Feast,' v. 156; he failed in conversation, i. 46; in Grub-street, 157; his 'Mac Flecknoe,' v. 157; his Odes, iv. 299; his 'Ovid,' iv. 325; his poverty, iii. 315; a song of, i. 88; and Butler, iv. 373; and the critics, iii. 408; Goldsmith and, ii. 117 n.; and Pope, i. 54, ii. 445, iii. 408; and Shadwell, v. 157; the 'Rehearsal,' iv. 373.
- Dubardieu, ii. 167.
- Dubbiosi, academy, ii. 418.
- Dubellamy, actor, ii. 217.
- Dublin, Goldsmith there, i. 6, 7, v. 404 n.: *See also under College, Goldsmith at; the Griersons, printers there, v. 404 n.*
- Dublin theatres and the youthful Edmund Burke, ii. 47 n.
- Dublin University, i. 5 n., 449; iii. 523, iv. 287; its Printing House, iv. 287.
- Duchess of M——'s white mice, story of, i. 38 n.
- Ducklington, Lady, v. 366.
- Dudley, Robert. *See Leicester, Earl of.*
- Duel, a, by proxy, i. 160.
- Duelling at Bath and Tunbridge, iv. 69, 147, 150; Gustavus Adolphus' scheme to prevent, iv. 151; law against, i. 207, 237 n.
- Duellist, a, i. 216.
- Du Halde, his account of China, iii. 1 n., 10 n., 310, 311 n., 351, 364.
- Du Hamel, v. 123.
- Dukedoms, German, iii. 434.
- Dumpling Dick (Dr. R. Rock, quack), iii. 256.
- Dunces, fashionable, v. 157; and the learned, ii. 394.
- Dunkin, Dr. W., i. 375, iv. 403 n.
- 'Dunkin's Epistle to the Earl of Chesterfield,' &c. (criticism), 1760, iv. 403.
- (cross-reference), iii. 281.
- Dunoyer, Madame, on Voltaire, iv. 11.
- Dunstall, actor, ii. 146.
- Dunton, John, ii. 450.
- Durer, Albert, iii. 379.
- "Dust against Dung," &c. (a cart race), iii. 323.
- 'Dust Cart, the,' song, i. 251.
- D'Urfey, Tom, iii. 201; his catches,

- iii. 202 n.; his 'Oylet Hole,' iii. 201.
- Dutch, the, i. 54 n., 320-2, iii. 25, 65, 213, v. 8; in the Indian seas, iii. 213; meanness of, at the court of Japan, iii. 425; an ambassador, ii. 383; their paintings, iii. 132; Elizabeth's Dutch wars, iii. 454; and the English, ii. 15, l. 316, v. 9, 341; and France, v. 13; and Spain, v. 11. For the Dutch, *see also* Holland, &c.
- Duty and fear, iii. 40.
- Du Val, Claude, iv. 374.
- Dwarf and giant friends, the, i. 119.
- Dwarf Tavern, Chelsea, v. 209 n.
- Dwarfs and giants, v. 208.
- Dyeing in the East, iii. 388.
- Dyer, John, his poetry, iii. 513 n.
- Dyer, Samuel, i. 459.
- Dying Swan (song), i. 139.
- E. O., gambling game, ii. 431, iv. 80, 85, &c.
- Eagles, v. 222, 232; robbing their nests, v. 222; killing in Orkney Islands, *ib.*
- Earth, the, theories of its formation, v. 190; indulgent mother, v. 192; its movement, v. 147; originally a comet, v. 191.
- 'Earth, The, and Animated Nature, a History of,' 1769-1774 (extracts), v. 181. *See also* 'Animated Nature.'
- Earthquakes, ii. 156.
- East, the, utility of a journey into, iii. 387.
- East India Company's service, iii. 431.
- East wind, effects of, iii. 337.
- Eastcheap, the Boar's Head tavern in, i. 275, 276 n.
- Eastcourt (actor), iii. 538.
- 'Easter Gift, The,' v. 356, 405.
- Eastern tales, imitations of, iii. 124, iv. 285.
- "Easy chair," &c., iv. 356.
- Eating, with the English, iii. 402.
- Eccentric minds, ii. 376.
- Eccentricities, Goldsmith's, i. 1, 44, ii. 51 n., 53, l. 21. *See also under* Habits, Character, Goldsmith anecdotes, &c.
- Ecclesiastical beggars, iii. 52.
- Echard, his Hist. Rome, v. 163.
- Echo, iii. 487.
- Economy, i. 449, iii. 313. *See also* Frugality, Luxury, &c.
- Edda, the, iii. 513, iv. 234.
- Edgware Road, near Hyde, Goldsmith there, i. 461, 464, v. 182 n. *See also* Hyde.
- Edinburgh, the old Assembly Rooms, i. 422; the closes of, i. 429; school of medicine, i. 418, 419, 429; theatre riot there, ii. 396 n.; Goldsmith in, i. 9 n., 418, 420, ii. 75, 424, v. 127.
- Edinburgh Review* on Goldsmith's poetry, i. 54 n.
- Edinburgh University, i. 418, iii. 501, 523.
- Editions of Goldsmith, i. 410, iii. 409, 415. *See also under* Works, the several works, the various editor's names, and also the introductory and foot-notes to the several works.
- Editors, a conflict of, i. 467 n.
- Edmonton, ii. 109.
- 'Education, On,' 1759, ii. 400.
- Education, i. 449, v. 256; a good, i. 302; boarding-school, ii. 403; public school, ii. 403; sacerdotal, iii. 284; university, ii. 410, iii. 521; of princes, ii. 332; by the state, ii. 402; of children, v. 198; of women, iii. 328; of youth, i. 326, 473, ii. 380, v. 253; and travel, iii. 521.
- Edward I., iv. 439; and the Welsh bards, iv. 299.
- Edward II., iv. 439.
- Edward III., iii. 452, iv. 439; and his officers, iii. 452.
- Edward IV., i. 288.
- Edward VI., iv. 447.
- "Edward's sons" and Crecy, ii. 104, l. 216.
- Edwards, his 'History of Birds,' v. 72.

- 'Edwin and Angelina,' 1764-5, ii. 20.
 — version in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' i. 99.
 — the edition in 'Poems for Young Ladies,' v. 152 n.
 — attributed to Johnson, v. 175 n.
 — the Archdal stanza, i. 236 n.; ii. 28 n. * * Mr. Archdal, M.P., who supplied Percy with this stanza for the 1801 edition of the Works, was, we believe, an ancestor of Mr. Archdale, the present M.P. for Fermanagh, whose seat for that county has been in the Archdale family for more than 150 years: *vide* 'Dod,' 1885.
 — and 'Raimond et Angeline,' ii. 30 n.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 56, 236, 453, 454, ii. 21, v. 175.
 — (cross-reference to), iii. 252.
 "Eel of science by the tail," to catch the, iv. 347.
 'Egmont (Van) and Heyman's Travels' (criticism), 1759, iv. 360.
 — (notes), iii. 387, iv. 412.
 Egremont, Earl of: *See* Wyndham, Chas.
 Egypt, the learning of, iii. 471.
 Egyptian origin of China, supposed, iii. 335 n.
 Egyptians, ancient, iv. 308, v. 134.
 Election, a general, ii. 147, iii. 402; a country, ii. 237.
 Electricity, discovery of, v. 149.
 Elegies, iv. 338; burlesque, by Goldsmith: *See* 'Mad-Dog' elegy, 'Mrs. Mary Blaize,' &c.; funeral, ridiculed, iii. 382; modern, iv. 340; criticized, i. 139, 140; and epitaphs, iv. 341.
 'Elegy, an, on the Death of a Mad Dog,' i. 139.
 — (cross-references to), iii. 260, 384.
 Elegy, 'On the Death of the Rt. Honourable * * *' iii. 384.
 Elephant, the, ii. 369, iii. 469; who wished to be a man, iii. 308; elephant and tiger fight, an, v. 83.
 'Elephant in the Moon,' Butler's, iv. 370.
 "Elevens! by the," ii. 179.
 * * Bailey's Dict., 1736, has. — "Possession is eleven points of the law," and it is suggested that the above oath has reference to this version of the legal axiom "Possession is nine points," &c. *See* 'Notes and Queries,' 6th S., xi. 437.
 Elizabeth, Queen, iv. 423, 448, v. 18; her court, iv. 423; her learning, 456, v. 303, 306; the age of, iii. 492; gallantry in her time, iv. 423; writers of her time, ii. 444, iv. 452, v. 308; her order as to fasting, v. 204; her politics, v. 10; her reign, v. 301, 307; and the colonization of America, v. 56; and her favourites, iii. 453, v. 304, 306; and her officers, iii. 453.
 Elizabeth, Princess, daughter of Geo. III., v. 64 n.
 Elk, the, v. 79.
 Ellis, Dr., and Goldsmith, i. 11.
 Elope methodically, madam, ii. 192.
 'Eloquence, Of,' 1759, ii. 420.
 Eloquence, i. 352, ii. 407, iv. 349; Cicero on, i. 352; and poetry, i. 341.
 Elphin, Bishop of, Goldsmith and, iii. 101.
 'Elysium, a Visit to,' 1760, iv. 486.
 Embden, port. *See* Emden.
 Embroidery by amateurs, ii. 261.
 Emden, or Embden, v. 37.
 Emigrant poor, the, ii. 42, l. 341.
 Emigrants, ii. 34, l. 50.
 Emigration, i. 316, iii. 64, 94.
 Emperors of Germany, v. 38.
 Empires, overgrown, iii. 64.
 Empress-Queen, the, v. 28. *See also* Maria-Theresa, iii. 26, &c.
 "Encore! Bravo!" i. 251.

- 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' i. 37 n.
 Encyclopedias, &c., iii. 498.
 Encyclopedists, the, iii. 497, iv. 221.
 Endowments of colleges, &c., iii. 501.
 Enemies, abuse of, iv. 468; blessing our, i. 142; dogs know their, v. 211; how to destroy, 301; praying for, v. 364; treatment of, iii. 86; and success, iii. 505.
 Engaging, the art of being, iv. 166.
 England, ii. 15, l. 317, iii. 160, 258, 285, 411; abuses in, ii. 384; her allies in Europe, v. 21; the Augustan Age of, ii. 443; burdened with written laws, ii. 428; a commercial nation, iii. 91; common people of, ii. 320; under Elizabeth, v. 307; histories of, v. 168, 252, 261; in 1756-61, v. 8, 18; justice in, iii. 143; learning in, iii. 498; the music of, i. 386, 387, 388, 391; "Old England and liberty!" iii. 431, 433; parallel between it and Athens, i. 350; progress of in Charles II.'s time, v. 334; establishing religion there, v. 304; its weather, iii. 337; wives in, i. 141; the vulgar of, ii. 424; and "foreign affairs," v. 19; and France, v. 10, 273; and Europe, v. 18; and the sea, v. 10, 239.
 England, happy sea-girt! v. 239.
 'England, History of,' Goldsmith's written for Newbery, 1762, i. 479.
 'England, A History of, in Letters of a Nobleman to his Son,' 1764 (selected letters), v. 249.
 — (notes, &c.), (?) i. 481, 482, iii. 215, 347, v. 168, 179, 250, 252, 259, 344, 347.
 — (cross-references to), iii. 452, iv. 425, 460, 461.
 'England, History of,' 4 vols., 1771; (preface), v. 166.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 28, 462, 472, 485, v. 176, 179.
 "England's griefs," &c., ii. 34, l. 57.
For England see also English, Englishmen, Britons, &c.
 English with tails, Maiolo's account of, iii. 60.
 English, the, i. 54, 320-2, 350, ii. 375, 379, 402, iii. 16, 21, 25, 28, 29 n., 42, 437, iv. 433, v. 18; abroad, i. 459, iii. 521; their butterfly pursuits, iv. 433; their character, v. 334; their courage, iii. 447, 450, iv. 462; their charity, iii. 85; their clergy, ii. 424; enmity with the French, iii. 85; they are first as *writers* of morals, v. 346; their fortitude, iii. 21; their gentlemen and servants, ii. 396; their gloominess, iii. 15; their gravity, ii. 435; their history, study of, v. 259; their horses, v. 210; their houses, iii. 16; they are humourists, iii. 95; their laws, iii. 36, 448; their learning, iii. 109, iv. 24, 26; their luxury, iii. 18; their manners, &c., iii. 23, 532; their polite literature, iv. 303 n.; their pride, iii. 21; their reserve, iii. 21; their temper, &c., iii. 340; their vulgar, *ib.*; their wives, matrimony, &c., iii. 35, 65; alleged degeneracy of, iii. 43 n.; how foreigners view them, iv. 26, 52; on French writers, iii. 75; and adultery, iii. 70; and the French, iii. 42, 62, 531; and the Dutch, ii. 15, l. 316, v. 9; and their kings, ii. 411; and the spleen, iii. 336.
 English Constitution, the, v. 169, 260, 283. *See also* Constitution.
 — Grammar, Swift's proposal for an, ii. 449-50.
 — language, i. 361, iv. 26, 437, 514 n., 515 n., v. 62; and the Reformation, v. 308. *See also* Language, &c.
 — liberty, iii. 107, iv. 465, v. 18. *See also* Liberty.
 — philosophy, ii. 321, iii. 352, v. 346.

- English verse, i. 383-86.
 'English Courage, a Review of' (attributed), 1758, iii. 450.
 'English Officers, On the Character of,' 1758, iii. 450.
 For the English, &c., see also under England, &c.
 Englishman, one, able to beat five Frenchmen, iii. 432.
 Englishman, the, ii. 16, l. 325, ii. 431, iii. 340, 431, 449, 493; and liberty, ii. 321.
 Englishman's malady, the, want of assurance, ii. 233.
 Enigmas and puzzles, iii. 333.
 Enjoyment, iii. 41.
 'Enjoyment of Life, On the Proper,' 1760, iv. 496.
 — (cross-references to), iv. 425.
 Enmities, iii. 251.
 'Enna's beauties,' &c., iii. 422.
 Ennui, a cure for, iv. 500.
 'Ennui, the Miseries of,' 1760, iv. 496.
 Ensenada, D'. *See* D'Ensenada.
 Enterprise, ii. 374.
 Enthusiasm, i. 352, ii. 424, iii. 456, iv. 243, iv. 352; or genius, i. 341; religious, ii. 426, iii. 400, v. 5; and ridicule, iii. 401.
 Enthusiasts, iv. 422.
 "Entire butt" = London porter, i. 253, iv. 413 n.
 Envy, ii. 432, iii. 465; mixed with applause, iii. 394.
 Epics, French, iv. 33.
 Epicure, an, iii. 198.
 Epicurism, iv. 266.
 Epidemic terrors in England, iii. 259.
 Epigoni, the, iv. 287.
 'Epigoniad, The' (criticism), 1757, iv. 287.
 'Epigram, An' (on the 'Rosciad'), iii. 408.
 Epigram, a literary contest by, iii. 406.
 Epigrams, Goldsmith's doubtful, iii. 409 n.
 'Epilogue intended for Mrs. Bulkley,' 1773, ii. 114.
 'Epilogue' for 'Mrs. Bulkley and Miss Catley,' 1773, ii. 110.
 'Epilogue to the Comedy of the Sister,' 1769, ii. 92.
 — (cross-reference to), iv. 275.
 'Epilogue spoken by Mr. Lee Lewes,' 1773, ii. 115.
 Epilogues, i. 468; and prologues, ii. 213.
 Episodes (in drama), i. 348.
 Epitaph, Whiston's, on his wife, and the Vicar's on his wife, i. 75; and tetrastic, Johnson's, on Goldsmith, i. 41.
 Epitaphs, iii. 46, iv. 135; Johnson on the use of Latin in, i. 40 n.; on the most distinguished wits, &c.: *See* 'Retaliation'; and elegies, iv. 341.
 Epithet, loaded, &c., iii. 516.
 Epping Forest, highwaymen of, iv. 383, 385 n.
 Epsom, Mrs. Map, the bone-setter at, iv. 433 n.
 Epsom Races, ii. 431.
 Erasmus, i. 40 n.; on Cicero, iv. 318; on miracle-seekers, ii. 477.
 Erpingham, Sir Thos., old, at Agincourt, iii. 452.
 Erroneous opinions, i. 237 n.
 Error, the demon of, iii. 142.
 Error is ever talkative, ii. 4.
 Erudition, pretences to, v. 132; vain, is "the baggage of antiquity," v. 139.
 Escobar, Antonio, iii. 9, iv. 382.
 Essay writing, i. 246, 259.
 Essays, prevalence of, iii. 357; should be superficial, i. 246.
 'Essays by Mr. Goldsmith' (the first collection), 1765, i. 201-310.
 'Essays' (Percy's Collection), i. 311-405.
 Essays, &c., Later Collected, iv. 415-512.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 201, 307, 311, 346, 386, 405, 406, ii. 20, 84, 89, 302, 400, iii. 253, 258, 276, 382, 387, 411, 428, 433, 447, 457, iv. 25, 416, 513, v. 133, 159, 193.

- Essays (criticism of), i. 52, 408, iv. 513.
 — (cross-references to), iv. 348, 473.
- Essex, Cranham Hall, Goldsmith invited there, v. 177 n.
- Essex, Earl of, iii. 454, v. 309; and Spenser, iv. 337 n.
- Essex, Earl of (Cromwell's), iii. 456, v. 324.
- Essex Court, Strand, Grattan and Goldsmith in, v. 174 n.
- Etheridge, iv. 419.
- Etherington, C., publisher, ii. 457 n.
- Ethiopian love of jewels, v. 203.
- Etruscans, the, iv. 310.
- Etui, an, iv. 135.
- 'Eudasia, Alcanor and,' v. 413.
- Eugenie, Prince, Mr. Hardcastle's stories of, ii. 220, 238.
- Eunuch singers, ii. 452, iii. 130, 295 n.
- Euphrates, the, ii. 61.
- Euphuists, the, iv. 424, 456: *See also* Lilly, &c.
- Eupolis, i. 349, 350.
- Euripides, i. 346, iv. 316, iv. 338.
- Europe, natural allies of England in, v. 21; governing powers of, v. 25; literature of, decline, iii. 240; polite learning in, Enquiry into, iii. 461; state of, temp. "Seven Years' War," iii. 210; its wars, &c., iii. 62, 160; wives in, i. 141; and China, their histories compared, iii. 157; and the aggressive policy of Russia, iii. 325.
- 'Europe, First Inhabitants of,' Wise on (criticism), 1758, iv. 304.
- 'European Magazine,' anecdotes of Goldsmith in, i. 38, iii. 187, v. 168, 201: *See also* under Cooke, "Conversation;" Goldsmith's essays in, i. 386 n.
- Eurydice found, iv. 488.
- Eustathius, iv. 490.
- Euston, Lady, iv. 135.
- Evans, Rev. J., his memoir of Goldsmith, i. 15.
- Evans, T., publisher of the *London Packet*, and Goldsmith's encounter with him, i. 34, 469, ii. 47, 55.
- Evans, T., Goldsmith's first editor, i. 470, ii. 45, 51, 76, 89.
- Evantius and Terence, iii. 473.
- Evening murmurs, ii. 36, l. 113.
- Eviction of the poor, ii. 18, l. 406.
See also Depopulation, &c.
- Evidence, balance of, i. 123.
- Evil, doing, that good may result, i. 173.
- Example, iii. 248, iv. 372.
- Exchange Alley. *See* 'Change Alley.'
- Excise Coffee-house, v. 178 n.
- Excommunicated, the, ii. 413.
- Excuses, Goldsmith good at, i. 420.
- Executioner, the, and Bidderman, ii. 367.
- Exercise, iv. 500.
- Expectation, iii. 167, v. 203.
- Expectations, ii. 417; great, i. 115.
- Expedient, the, and the Right, ii. 53, l. 40.
- Experience, i. 449.
- 'Experimental Philosophy, A Survey of' (preface), 1764-76, v. 143.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 21, 483.
- Exploration and Travel in the East, &c., iii. 387.
- Express, an, ii. 167.
- Exshaw's Magazine*, v. 410 n.
- Extravagance, i. 302.
- "Extremes are only in the master's mind," ii. l. 15, 324.
- Eye, the, in insects, v. 113; and darkness, iv. 247.
- Fable, v. 65.
- Fables of travellers, iii. 59; for youth, iii. 229.
- Fabricius and Pyrrhus, i. 335.
- Fabulous early history, v. 170.
- Face, beauty of, v. 200; as expressive of character, v. 201; "push-

- ing a," i. 302; powdering the, ii. 85, l. 35; painting, the, ii. 96, l. 26; patches, iii. 20; wash, the Vicar upsets a, i. 93.
- Faces, reading, i. 253.
- Facilis Descensus, iii. 119.
- Facts, ii. 406, v. 256; Goldsmith's faithfulness to, iv., 48 n.; and dates, v. 257.
- Faction, ii. 16, l. 345, ii. 17, l. 383.
- Fairfax (poet), iv. 418.
- Fairfax, Thomas, Lord, v. 328, 330.
- Fair, the Vicar at the, i. 123.
- "Fair, all the fun of the," v. 405.
- 'Fair Citizen, The' (criticism), 1757, iv. 275.
- Fair Rosamond's Bower, story, i. 91.
- 'Fairing, The,' v. 356 n., 405 n.
- Fairy, an old, iii. 185.
- Fairy Tale, a (Prince Benbennin), iii. 180, 184.
- 'Fairy Tale,' Parnell's, iv. 175.
- Faith, simple, i. 331.
- Falling and rising, iii. 31, 82.
- Fallopious, G., v. 92.
- 'False Delicacy,' Kelly's ii. 115 n.
- Falsehood, deceit and, ii. 438.
- Falstaff, Sir John, i. 275. iii. 532, iv. 443, 499; in Tartarus, i. 277.
- Falstolph, Sir John, and Shakspeare's Falstaff, iv. 443; his employment of Caxton, *ib.*
- Falkland, Lord, i. 170, iv. 459, v. 325.
- Falkener, Sir Everard, and Voltaire, iv. 27.
- Fame, iii. 279, 491; danger of, ii. 376; the desire for, iii. 113, 499; literary, *see* Literary; popularity and, ii. 392.
- Machine, the, ii. 388.
- the Temple of, the coach bound for, ii. 389.
- Family, the, in China, iii. 298; life, ii. 6, l. 18; the father of a, i. 67.
- Famous men, a search for, iii. 392; of a day, iii. 393. *See also* Men, &c.
- Fancy, iii. 153, 513; and genius, i. 361; and reality, iv. 335.
- Fanny, Miss. *See* L —, Miss, &c.
- Fanshaw, Sir R., ii. 447.
- Fantoccini, Goldsmith and the, i. 43.
- Faquirs, the, iii. 400.
- Farce, Goldsmith's, 'The Grumbler,' ii. 293.
- Fardingales and ruffs, i. 277.
- Farhein, Mr., of Paris (?), i. 424.
- "Farm, the cultivated," ii. 33, l. 10.
- Farms, small, v. 353, 356.
- Farquhar, i. 147, iii. 347, iv. 418, 428, v. 345.
- Farr, Dr., on Goldsmith, iii. 389 n.
- Farren, W., actor, iv. 114 n.
- 'Fascination' [the evil eye], from the Spanish of Feijoo, v. 413.
- Fashion, ii. 14, l. 279; in arts, &c., 111, 130; a club of, i. 256; the thorough-bred insolence of, iii. 328; ladies of, i. 104; its painful joys, ii. 40, l. 263; and whim, iv. 435.
- Fashion Fair, on the frozen Thames, iii. 11.
- Fashionable age, the, ii. 247; foibles, iii. 224; letters, iii. 148; life at Bath, iv. 67, 71, &c.; pleasures, iv. 499.
- Fashions, absurd, in China, iii. 304; in England and Russia, i. 299; old and new, i. 280; Paris and other, ii. 324; of women's dress, iii. 302.
- Fast-days, Queen Elizabeth's, v. 204.
- Fat man, the, in a shipwreck, i. 246.
- Fate, mysteries of, i. 303.
- Father of a family, a, i. 67; an only, ii. 161.
- 'Fathers, Lives of the,' Goldsmith's receipts for, i. 481.

- Faulkner, George, Swift's printer, ii. 76 n., iv. 404.
- Faults, iii. 176; the first, and after, i. 143; in works of genius, iv. 353.
- Faux Hall. *See* Vauxhall.
- Favour, a, and a debt, iv. 60.
- Favourites of kings, v. 291.
- Favours, small, secure good-will, great, destroy friendship, iv. 93. *See also* Obligations.
- Fear and duty, iii. 40.
- Feasts in the olden time, i. 286.
- Featherston, Sir Ralph, and 'She Stoops to Conquer,' i. 4 n., 60 n.
- Fecundity, of animals, v. 88; of fishes, v. 103, 108.
- Feeling, i. 331.
- Fees to servants, iii. 210.
- Feet, ladies', in China, iii. 304; of flies, v. 114.
- Feijoo, Father. *See* Feyjoo.
- Female knighthood, iii. 237; a female wit, the end of (Miss Sylvia S.), iv. 98.
- 'Female Characters,' essay attributed to Goldsmith, iv. 416 n., 515, v. 408.
- 'Female Warriors,' i. 315.
- (cross reference), iii. 397.
- Females, fallen, ii. 378, iii. 424; proportion of to males, i. 316.
- Fenton, Miss Lavinia, iv. 78 n.
- Ferguson, Mrs., actress, iv. 483 n.
- Fermenting (non-) natures, i. 407, iii. 501.
- Ferney, or Forney, i. 2.
- Ferocity of the English, iii. 403.
- Ferrers, Earl, executed for murder, iii. 145, 170.
- Feyjoo, or Freijo, Padre, iii. 488, v. 413.
- Fiction, works of: *See* Novels, &c.; the immoralities of, v. 151; and truth, ii. 438.
- Fiddleback, Goldsmith's horse, i. 413, 414.
- Fiddle-case, story of the, iii. 249.
- Fiddlers, ii. 77, l. 35.
- Fielding, Sir John, ii. 108, iii. 325 n.; and the 'Beggars' Opera,' iii. 321 n.
- Fielding, H., his 'Miser' and 'Mock Doctor,' ii. 311; his Parson Adams, &c., i. 66 n.; his heroes condemned, ii. 405; on physiognomy, v. 202; and S. Boyse, v. 151.
- Fifteen hundred a-year, ii. 228.
- Fighting and scolding, iv. 468.
- Figures, &c., in poetry, i. 354, 357.
- Filby, John, Goldsmith's tailor, i. 42.
- 'Filial Ingratitude,' v. 413.
- Filial obedience, iii. 158.
- Finck's surrender to Daun, iv. 475.
- Finecly, John (?), i. 423.
- Fineely, John (?), i. 423.
- Fineering, i. 302.
- Finery, Sunday, i. 86; and breeding, i. 103.
- Finger, pricked, the lady who died of a, iii. 51.
- Finsbury, Grub Street, ii. 309 n.
- Finsbury Circus, i. 250 n.
- Fipsihi, iii. 16, 17.
- Fipsihihi, the Immortal, ii. 416.
- Fire, eating, iii. 172.
- Fireside, the, i. 436; adventures, i. 71; country, i. 90; happiness, i. 141; the evening, ii. 6, l. 14.
- "Fire-side and easy chair," lives passed between, iv. 3.
- Fire-worshippers, the, iii. 57 n., 138.
- Firmly, Lord, iii. 133.
- Firnaz, the Genius of Pleasure, iv. 501.
- Fish, the air-bladder of, v. 105; the age of, *ib.*; migration of, v. 107; voracity and digestion of, v. 106. *See also* Fishes.
- Fish Street Hill, Goldsmith there, i. 16 n., iv. 294 n.
- Fisher, Kitty, i. 319.
- Fisheries, British, the Herring scheme, iii. 385. *See also* Herring Fishery.
- Fishery, a land-carriage, ii. 168.

- Fishes, on, v. 102; fecundity of, v. 103, 108.
- Five Members, the, impeached by Chas. I., v. 321.
- Flagellation, worship by, i. 343 n.
- Flags, captured, iii. 155.
- Flamborough, Farmer, and his family, i. 85, 104, 111.
- Flaminius, Quintus, i. 332.
- Flamstead Hill (?), i. 431.
- Flamstead House, i. 431 n.
- Flanders, Goldsmith's wanderings through, i. 13, 14; learning in, iii. 377; Marlborough's war there, iv. 186; peasantry of, i. 164; a merry slave in the fortifications there, ii. 334. *See also* Holland, &c.
- Flanigan, little, ii. 176.
- "Flat, that is," iii. 148.
- Flatteries, i. 92, iii. 102, ii. 415, iii. 99, iv. 113.
- Flattery, i. 160, 439, ii. 388, iii. 206, iv. 478; of children, ii. 407; Court, iii. 397; English, iii. 397; innocent, iii. 384; premeditated, iii. 383; "a cavalcade of," iii. 393; and satire, v. 17; "wit, flattery, and fine clothes would debauch a nunnery," iv. 87. *See also* Admiration, mutual, Praise, &c.
- Flavia and Jack Bookworm, ii. 84.
- Fleet Bridge, iv. 463 n.
- ditch, iii. 442, iv. 328, 463 n.
- Market, i. 18, ii. 371 n.
- marriages, iii. 271 n.
- prison, ii. 150, iii. 22 n.
- Road, Hampstead, iii. 442 n.
- Street, ii. 84, l. 14, iii. 442 n., iv. 465, v. 126 n.; "Liberty and," ii. 266.
- Fleming, Mrs., Goldsmith's landlady at Islington, i. n. 20.
- Flemings in England, v. 308.
- Flemish school of painting, i. 130.
- 'Flemish Tradition, A,' 1759, ii. 366.
- Fletcher, Beaumont and, i. 146.
- Fletcher, Phineas, iv. 337.
- Fleury, Cardinal, iv. 39, 41, 45.
- Flies, v. 113; the feet of, v. 114.
- Flinn, Goldsmith as tutor to, i. 474 n.
- Flogging children, ii. 409. *See also* Correction, &c.
- Floor-boards, stained, iv. 64.
- Florence, Goldsmith in (?), iii. 224.
- Florus, i. 334, iv. 255.
- Flowers, parts of, v. 126; Goldsmith and, i. 12.
- Fludyer, Sir S., iii. 405 n.
- Flummery, wild ducks and, iii. 219.
- Flute-playing, Goldsmith's, i. 13, 440; ii. 13, l. 244; iii. 340; v. 173 n.; by the man in black, iii. 337.
- "Fly with a long pin stuck through," *i.e.*, Goldsmith wearing his sword, v. 174 n.
- Flying Childers. *See* Childers.
- Flying powers of birds, v. 96.
- Foh (Fuh, or Buddha), iii. 2 n.
- Fo-hi, or Fo-hy, early emperor of China, iii. 39 n.
- Fohi (idol, China), iii. 39, 54, 61, 159, 363, 401.
- Fo-hy, the mystical diagrams of, iii. 151.
- Folard, Père, and Voltaire, iv. 13, 19.
- Folios, were angels to write books, they never would write folios, iii. 483.
- Follies, iii. 381; of mankind, iv. 486; from town, ii. 220; of the wise, iv. 171.
- Folly, reproving, i. 128; simple, iv. 249.
- Fong whang. *See* Foong-hoàng.
- Fontainebleau, Bolingbroke at, iv. 216.
- Fontaine, La, ii. 356, iv. 338. *See also* La Fontaine.
- Fontaines, Abbé des, and Voltaire, iv. 37.
- Fontarabia, Spain, a market for wives, i. 141.
- Fontenelle, iii. 61, 163, iv. 25; and Newton, ii. 321; and Voltaire, iv. 19, 33.
- Fontenoy, battle of, iv. 470.

- Food, sweet when not paid for, i. 302.
- Foolish, the most, iii. 164; where a wise man may be, iv. 166.
- Fools, children of humanity, i. 256; men are, everywhere, ii. 413; the company of, iii. 210; their passage to vice, iii. 211; and knaves, v. 17; and the wise, iii. 147.
- "Fools who came to scoff," &c., ii. 38, l. 180.
- Foong-hoàng, iii. 151, 182, 295.
- Foote, Samuel, his 'Piety in Patents,' ii. 115 n.; his theatre in the Haymarket, ii. 114, l. 9.
- Foot-guards, [pig-]tails for the, ii. 94, l. 26.
- Footing. *See* Garnishes.
- Footmen, riot of. *See* 'High Life Below Stairs.'
- Forbes, Sir William, i. 40 n.
- Ford, friend of Pope, iv. 161, 163.
- Ford, Mr. E., his notes on the 'Vicar of Wakefield.' *See* Wakefield, Newbery, Sterne, portrait painter.
- Fordyce, Dr., attends Goldsmith in his fatal illness, i. 39; his sermons for young women, v. 150.
- Foreign titles and English officers, iii. 455; trade and home industry, i. 150.
- Foreigners, prejudice against, i. 459, iii. 53, 169; their view of Englishmen, iii. 522.
- Forest, silence of the, v. 228.
- Forgotten, men soon, ii. 363.
- Form, "there is a form in these things," said Miss Skeggs, i. 114.
- Formey, J. H. S., iv. 355-6 n.; his *Hist. Philosophy*, trans. by Goldsmith, *ib.*, v. 143 n.
- Formey's 'Philosophical Miscellanies' (criticism), 1759, iv. 355.
- (notes, &c.), i. 483, v. 143.
- Forms, philosophical, iii. 375.
- Forney, or Cloncalla, i. 61 n.
- Forster, John, his *Life of Goldsmith*, i. 455, ii. 58, 117, 457, iv. 303, iv. 471, v. 68, 412; on the 'Animated Nature,' v. 182; on Mrs. Abington and the character of Miss Hardcastle, ii. 291, 292; on Goldsmith and the 'Beggars' Opera,' iii. 321; on Goldsmith's contributions to the *Monthly*, and *Critical Reviews*, iv. 410; on Goldsmith and Sterne, iii. 285; his account of Goldsmith's death, i. 39; his theory of the origin of Beau Tibbs questioned, iv. 88, 121.
- Fortitude, i. 142, 207, 269, ii. 354, iii. 178, 252, 433, iv. 132; of mind, ii. 212.
- Fortuitous concurrence of accidents, the, i. 223.
- Fortune, i. 212, iii. 313; the misfortune of succeeding to a, iv. 498; good, i. 78; address to, iii. 12; not blind, iii. 263; loss of, increases pride, i. 74; mutability of, iv. 103; seeking, iii. 263; soldiers of, iii. 455; travelling after, is not the way to secure her, i. 155; where she *is not*, iii. 263; and fine clothes, power of, i. 88, 95; and merit, ii. 306.
- Fortune, Goldsmith's address to, iii. 12. * * * The translation of this which Percy gave we have since found also in the Dublin edition of the 'Citizen' published in 1769, before the author's death.
- Fortune-hunters, i. 90, 404.
- Fortune-teller, the, and the Vicar's daughters, i. 108.
- "Forty pounds a year, rich with," ii. 37, l. 142.
- Foundry, the, Moorfields, i. 250.
- 'Fountain of Fine Sense, The,' 1760, iv. 477.
- Fox, C. J., i. 37; on the 'Traveller,' i. 24. *See also* under Almack's.
- Fox, the, parental affection of, v. 217.
- Fox, the, Islington, iii. 110.
- Fox Hall. *See* Vauxhall.
- France, iii. 160, v. 26; the Augustan age of, ii. 444; authorship in, Voltaire on, iii. 506;

- cheap living and tough meat in, i. 459; her colonization of Canada, v. 13; despotic rule in, v. 26; English possession of, iii. 451; Goldsmith's visit of 1755, i. 13, 14, 426; the game laws there, v. 223; Goldsmith in, iii. 493 (?), v. 214, 227, 243; Goldsmith's visit of 1770, i. 457, iv. 156 n.; justice in, iii. 143; literary journals of, iii. 511; marriage in, ii. 241; music of, i. 386, 387; Newton's philosophy there, ii. 322; polite learning in, iii. 491; slavery of her people, v. 223; state of, Goldsmith foresees the Revolution, iii. 212; strength of, v. 33; war policy of, v. 28; and the French, ii. 13, l. 240; and England, v. 10, 12, 26, 286; and Hanover, v. 52; and William III., v. 335. *See also* French, &c.
- Francis, Emperor of Germany, and Maria Theresa, v. 47.
- Francis, Rev. Philip, i. 407 n.; his translations used by Goldsmith, i. 325, 331, 336, 340, 407, ii. 135.
- Francon, his accusation of Vanini, ii. 412.
- Franks, Dr. Timothy, iii. 255.
- Fraser, Mary, ii. 476 n.
- Frederic the Wise, v. 294.
- Frederick, Prince of Wales, iv. 138, 185 n.; his widow, iv. 135: *See also* Augusta, Princess; and Beau Nash, iv. 109, 113; Pope on, iv. 110. *See also* Titi, Prince.
- Frederick II. of Prussia (or Frederick the Great), i. 451, ii. 82, iii. 161, 163, 164, 484, iv. 34, 36, 39, 41, 51, 479; his 'Anti-Machiavel,' iv. 45; his army, ii. 318; his Code, ii. 428; his poetry, iii. 163 n., iv. 37; his sister, iii. 164; and Voltaire, ii. 317, iv. 51.
- Frederick William of Prussia, iv. 36.
- Free trade, ii. 384.
- Freedom, ii. 17, l. 365; iii. 179, 188; a mark of, ii. 429; the blessings and ills of, ii. 16, l. 335; forfeiting, iii. 366; riches in a country shows, i. 167; without ceremony destroys friendship, i. 85; and despotism, v. 316; and learning, iii. 469; and subordination, iv. 189; and wealth, ii. 9, l. 91.
- Freethinkers, i. 96.
- Freeze, Mr., iii. 54.
- 'Freijo, Father, Some Particulars Relating to,' 1759, ii. 360. *See also* Freyjoo.
- Freind, Dr., v. 344.
- French, the, i. 54, 319, 320-2, 458, ii. 178, iii. 22, 25, 28, 85, 432, 433, 447; their acting, ii. 311; their comedy, ii. 146; in Canada, v. 29; their conquest of Port St. Philip, iv. 466; on English writers, ii. 178, iii. 74; their "fribbleism," iv. 429; their frippery, ii. 222; their description of foreigners, iii. 294; their gaiety, ii. 435; their humour, ii. 146; imitating them, ii. 112; their language, iii. 486, 493, 532; their levity, iii. 492; their "pretty, civil manner," i. 458; their peasantry, i. 164; their preachers, i. 272; prejudice against, iv. 468; ridiculed after their own manner, iii. 292; their self-sufficiency, iii. 492; their taste, ii. 219 n.; their old vaudevilles, i. 391; their verse, i. 385; their women, ii. 324.
- French, Goldsmith's, i. 424; Academy, the, and Piron, iii. 494; protestants, persecution of, v. 5; invasion panics, iii. 22, 29; Revolution, the, foreseen by Goldsmith, iii. 213; tragedies, v. 346; women and parrots, v. 227; and English books, iii. 530, iv. 342; prisoners in England, iii. 85; officers and soldiers, iii. 447; and Italians, story of

- the wars between, i. 180. *See also* France, &c.
- Frenchman, the, iii. 492.
- 'Frenchman, Sentiments of a, on the Temper of the English,' 1759, ii. 435.
- Frenchmen, ii. 228, iv. 281; and Dutchmen, i. 427.
- Fréron, iii. 74 n., 511; on English writers, iii. 74.
- Fretting, the use of, ii. 206.
- 'Friar of Orders Gray,' the, and 'Edwin and Angelina,' ii. 21 n.
- Friars, the contending, iii. 401.
- Fribbleism, iv. 429.
- Friend, a, iii. 82; a true, ii. 155; the philosopher in search of a, v. 402.
- Friend, Sir J., and Sir W. Perkins, execution of, v. 176.
- Friends, i. 82, 451, iii. 244, v. 358; old, ii. 220; old and new, iii. 278; on losing our, iii. 355; the separation of, i. 79, iii. 17; and dependents, iii. 249.
- 'Friendship, On,' 1774, iv. 509.
- Friendship, i. 168, 268, ii. 26, iii. 14, 69 n., 103, 179, 251, 283; that is credulity, ii. 212; disproportioned, i. 90; an instantaneous, i. 124; turned to hatred, iv. 38; expecting too much from, iv. 510; freedom without ceremony destroys it, i. 85; a reason for, i. 91; and favours, iv. 93; and gratitude, iv. 510; and love, ii. 85, l. 32, ii. 157, 314, iv. 242, 483, 502; and pity, ii. 344; and pride, iv. 510.
- Friga and Odin, iv. 234, 236.
- Frigid, the (in style), Theophrastus on, i. 378.
- Frigid zone, tenants of the, ii. 8, l. 65.
- Frizzle, Mrs., ii. 221.
- Frog-eaters, French, iv. 469.
- 'Frogs and Mice, Battle of the,' Parnell's, iv. 175.
- Frogs and toads, v. 239.
- Froissart, iii. 452, iv. 443.
- Frolics "about town," &c., temp. 1700, iv. 61.
- 'Frontinella's Invitation,' &c., iv. 70.
- Frost-fair. *See* Thames.
- Frugality, i. 440, 449, ii. 354, 379, 405, iii. 105, 365, iv. 105; and misers, iv. 4.
- Fruit, properties of, v. 128; preserving, *ib.*
- Fruzz, Miss, ii. 157.
- "Fudge!" i. 111, 112, 237 n., iii. 26 n.
- Fudge, Mr., iii. 191.
- Fudgi, Father, iii. 26.
- Fuh (or Foh), iii. 39.
- Fum Hoam, iii. 17, 29.
- 'Funeral,' Steele's, i. 33.
- Funeral, elegies, ridiculed, iii. 382; Goldsmith's, i. 39, v. 175; solemnities, iv. 134.
- Funerals, iii. 44; Chinese, *ib.*; pomp in, v. 366; and undertakers, iii. 382.
- Future State, the, the Jews' view, iv. 394; the Old Testament on, iv. 395.
- Futurity, i. 67.
- 'G. C. and R. L., To' (epigram) [? by Goldsmith], iii. 409.
- G. J., a musician, dedicates to Beau Nash, iv. 118.
- Gaberdine, the, i. 276.
- Gadding, ii. 85, l. 52.
- "Gagging," stage, ii. 288 n.
- Gaiety, and gravity, ii. 435; and religion, iii. 400.
- Gain, love of, and industry, ii. 15, l. 300.
- 'Galhinda, Zenim and,' 1761, iv. 501.
- Galileo, iii. 162.
- 'Galissee, La, Le Fameaux,' ii. 89 n.
- Gallantry at Queen Elizabeth's Court, iv. 423, v. 306; in the times of Charles II., Anne, and George I. and II., iv. 60, 87; of Beau Nash, iv. 87; the pursuit of, iv. 51.

- Gallants and bloods, i. 287; old and young, ii. 112.
- Galley slave, the protestant. *See* Marteilhe.
- Gam, David [? Shakspeare's Fluellen] and Henry V., iii. 452, v. 286.
- Gambado, Geoffrey. *See* Bunbury, Henry.
- Gambling clubs, iv. 149 n.
- Game laws, English and French, v. 223. *See also* Poaching.
- Games, card, &c., iv. 79; games on Michaelmas Eve, i. 111.
- Gamester, a, i. 216, iv. 62.
- Gamesters, Lucas's Lives of the, iv. 63.
- Gaming, i. 286, ii. 108, 261, iii. 263, iv. 63; at Bath and Tunbridge, iv. 76; in England, temp. Henry VII. and VIII., i. 289; rise of in England, iv. 62, 63; places, English and foreign, ii. 431, iv. 62; the laws of, ii. 414; in Russia, i. 300; women and, iii. 174, 177, 371; Acts against, George II., &c., iv. 79; a dissuasive from, iv. 142; Goldsmith's alleged passion for, i. 9, 11, 38, 52, iii. 263 n., iv. 143 n.; a suicide through, iv. 97 n.; tricks of sharpers, &c., iv. 143.
- Gangler, or Gylfe, of Sweden, iv. 235.
- Gantelope = gauntlet, ii. 364.
- Gaping, or yawning, v. 200.
- Garden, a poet's, i. 395.
- Garden Court, Temple, Goldsmith in. *See* Temple.
- Gardening, Chinese and English, ii. 142, l. 102, iii. 118.
- Gardens, Chinese, i. 397; defacing, *ib.*; ornamental, *ib.*; taste in, *ib.*
- Gardiner, Mr., actor, ii. 217.
- Gardiner, Stephen, iv. 446.
- Garnet, ladies' maid, ii. 161.
- Garnishes, ii. 385.
- Garrett, Mr. W. H., on 'Macbeth,' iv. 429 n.
- Garrick, David, i. 37, 39, 255, ii. 309, 334 n., 338, iv. 127 n., 350 n.; his flatterers, ii. 56, l. 110; his prologue to 'She Stoops to Conquer,' ii. 218; his *jeux d'esprit* on Goldsmith, i. 52 n., ii. 57 n.; on Mdlle. Clairon, ii. 338; on Goldsmith, i. 51, 410; on a quack, ii. 390 n.; Boswell on his rejection of plays, iv. 398 n.; Davies's 'Life of,' i. 63 n.; Goldsmith's epitaph on, ii. 52, l. 11, 56, l. 93; Goldsmith's letters to, i. 454, 467, 471; 'High Life Below Stairs' attributed to him, ii. 395 n.; Jas. Ralph's attack upon, iii. 529; and the 'Beggars' Opera,' iii. 321 n.; and Goldsmith, i. 42, 47, 454, 471-2, iii. 193 n., 520 n., 538 n., 539 n.; the "poor Poll" epigram, and 'Retaliation,' i. 47, ii. 51 n.; and the 'Good-Natured Man,' i. 26; and Rev. W. Hawkins, iv. 398; and Home's 'Douglas,' iv. 249 n.; and Shakspeare, ii. 57, l. 123; and 'She Stoops to Conquer,' i. 32, v. 175 n.
- Garrick Correspondence, the, i. 467 n., iv. 398 n.
- Garrick MSS., the, i. 51 n., 455 n.
- Garth, Dr., iv. 418, 420, v. 346; his 'Dispensary,' v. 157.
- Gassendus, iv. 268.
- Gaubius, Professor, i. 429, iii. 490; Goldsmith's studies under, i. 11, iii. 490 n.; Goldsmith's conversation with, iii. 501; on universities, iii. 501.
- Gauls, Belgic, the, iv. 437.
- Gaunt, John of, iv. 442.
- Gaurs, the, iii. 274.
- Gay, John, iv. 160, 161, 163, 164, 418, v. 346; his 'Beggars' Opera,' iii. 295 n.; his obligations to Parnell, iv. 162; as a member of the Scriblerus Club, iv. 169; his 'Shepherd's Week,' i. 30, v. 156; his (and Pope and Arbuthnot's) 'Three Hours

- after Marriage,' iv. 163; his 'Trivia,' iv. 167; his 'What d' ye call it?' 177; and Parnell, 162, 166.
- Gay, John, his (?) "lovers struck dead," &c., i. 98. * * We have not found this story of lovers "struck dead in each others arms" in Gay's works. It seems likely that the allusion is to the death of J. Hewet and Sarah Drew. Mr. Dobson and other editors take this view. The incident is narrated in a letter from Gay to Fortescue in Pope's Correspondence, where it is also celebrated in four lines of verse. This verse may be Goldsmith's ground of attribution to Gay. But, strange to say, later in Pope's Correspondence the same story appears, with the same verse, in a letter purporting to be by Pope himself. See Bowles' 'Pope,' vol. ix., pp. 100-105, and vol. x. p. 72; also Carruther's 'Life of Pope' (Bohn's Illustrated Library), 1857, p. 188.
- "Gay Bacchus," &c., Parnell's, iv. 174.
- Gaza, Theodore, iv. 378.
- Gazeteer, The*, i. 152.
- Gazeteer and New Daily Advertiser*, its attack upon Goldsmith, v. 176, 177 n.
- 'Gee-ho Dobbin,' song, i. 251.
- Gemelli, his travels, iii. 388.
- Geminiani, on English music, i. 391.
- Generation, of animals, v. 91; "equivocal," v. 118; philosophical, v. 247; of the polypus, v. 245; the rising, v. 63.
- Generosity, i. 450, ii. 149, iii. 246; of Henry IV. of France, *ib.*; of the Romans, i. 333; without prudence, iv. 59; is overpraised, iii. 365; and justice, ii. 352, iii. 14, iv. 60.
- Geneva, ii. 428; Voltaire on, ii. 317, 340; its university, iii. 523.
- Genii, of Demonstration, &c., iii. 140-142.
- Genius, ii. 375, 380, 421, iv. 418, v. 60; or enthusiasm, i. 341; enemies of, iii. 50; fast and slow growth of, i. 326; infantile and adult, iv. 366; the levities of, iv. 166; and the man of genius, iv. 421; neglect of, i. 437, ii. 451; persecution of, iii. 162; poverty the nurse of, i. 157; rewards of in England, iii. 499, 500; sharpened by hunger, iii. 347; the trivial performances of, iv. 362; works of, iv. 353; art and nature, i. 324; and fancy, i. 361; and learning, iv. 366; and prudence, iv. 43; and the vulgar, iii. 340.
- Genoa, i. 152, iii. 188.
- Genteel, ii. 291; the "genteel thing," ii. 227.
- "Genteelest of times," the, ii. 227.
- Genteely, doing the thing, i. 307.
- Gentility, i. 78; gentility *v.* trade (Mrs. Tibbs *v.* the pawnbroker's widow), iii. 268.
- 'Gentle Herdsman,' and 'Edwin and Angelina,' ii. 21 n.
- Gentleman, the fine, iii. 18; companion to a, i. 159; the trade of a, i. 455.
- Gentleman's Magazine*, S. Boyse and the, v. 151 n.; its parliamentary reports, iv. 435 n.
- Gentlemen, ii. 329; English, iii. 36; fine, iii. 197.
- "Gentlemen, a society of," magazines edited by, i. 260.
- Gentry and traders, iv. 123.
- Geography, i. 336.
- Geometry, i. 336; misapplied, *ib.*
- "George! Bye-fore" (oath), iii. 263 n., v. 173 n.
- George I., ii. 424 n.; literature in his reign, v. 343; and Bolingbroke, iv. 191; and the Duchess of Kendal, iv. 211 n.
- George II., iii. 143, 290 n., 450; his

- officers, iii. 150 ; his queen : *see* Caroline, Queen ; his sons, iii. 450 ; his wars, iv. 462 ; death of, and mourning for, iii. 653 ; the lover of his reign, iv. 87.
- George III., iii. 290 n. ; his accession, i. 314, iii. 353 ; his daughter Elizabeth, v. 64 n. ; his brothers and the Royal Marriage Act, ii. 241 n. ; his character, i. 314 ; his coinage, iii. 434 ; his coronation, i. 304, 307, 310, iii. 378 ; his court, iii. 436 ; he was "wholly English," iii. 435 ; his "favourite comedian" (Quick), ii. 300 n. ; his industry, i. 306 ; his mother : *see* Augusta, Princess ; his policy, i. 314 ; and 'She Stoops to Conquer,' ii. 241 n.
- George's coffee-house, ii. 344 n., iv. 292, 465.
- Gerard Street, Soho, i. 24.
- Gerbua, or Kangaroo, the, v. 186.
- German commentators, &c., i. 436, 380 ; dukedoms, iii. 434 ; soldiers of fortune, iii. 455.
- 'German Doctor, The,' iv. 178.
- Germans, the, i. 54, 320-2, iv. 284.
- Germany, iii. 160, v. 25 ; Empress of, her female order of knighthood, iii. 398 ; Goldsmith's wanderings in, i. 14, (?) iii. 484 ; herrings have abandoned its coasts, v. 107 ; the music of, i. 387 ; news from, iii. 28 ; polite learning in, iii. 483, 490 ; state of the empire, iii. 211 ; in the time of the Seven Years' War, v. 37 ; and Prussia, v. 34.
- Gesner, naturalist, v. 70, 186.
- Gestation of animals, v. 88.
- Gesture, in acting, ii. 338-9 ; in conversation, &c., ii. 309.
- Ghengis Khan, fable by, iii. 369 n.
- Ghors. *See* Gaurs.
- 'Ghost, The,' Churchill's, i. 254, ii. 474 n.
- Ghost, the Cock-Lane. *See* Cock-Lane Ghost.
- Ghosts, alarms about, v. 366 ; belief in, v. 391 ; Goody Two-Shoes taken for one, v. 366 ; one killed, i. 256, 285.
- Giant, the, and dwarf who were friends, i. 119 ; the Staffordshire giant, i. 251.
- Giants and dwarfs, v. 208.
- Giaour, iii. 274 n.
- Gibbet, the black, ii. l. 318, 42 ; a floating, iii. 349 ; and statue, difference between, ii. 415.
- Gibbon, Edward, i. 27, 37, 40 n., v. 171 n. ; and Reynolds, iv. 20 n.
- Gideon, Sampson, ii. 348.
- 'Gift, The, To Iris,' 1759, ii. 80.
- 'Giles Gingerbread,' v. 356 n., 405 n.
- Giles, Goody, a reputed witch, v. 392.
- Gin and brandy partizans at an election, iii. 403 ; 'Gin-lane,' Hogarth's, iv. 413 n. ; shops, Johnson on, iii. 43 n.
- Gin Hiung, iii. 35.
- Gingerbread, i. 117.
- Ginseng, root, iii. 93.
- Ginsong, Emperor, iii. 159.
- Gipsey, the, and Elizabeth Canning, iv. 434.
- Giraghty, Catherine, of Lissoy, ii. 139 n.
- Girls, education of, i. 114.
- Giving, and getting, iii. 100 ; and receiving, iii. 365.
- Glanville, his belief in witchcraft, &c., ii. 459, 478.
- Glasse, Mrs., her cookery book written by Hill, ii. 390 n.
- Gleek, game, iv. 79.
- Gleek, Mrs., i. 284.
- Glenalvon, in 'Douglas,' iv. 252.
- "Gliding" v. "Sliding," i. 361.
- Globe, the, Fleet Street, iii. 441 n.
- Glory, iii. 31, v. 59 ; true and false, ii. 415, 435, iv. 487 ; so called, v. 66.
- Gloucester, Duke of, and the Royal Marriage Act, ii. 241 n.
- Glover, the, who was a Scotch peer, i. 422.

- Gluck, Mr., iii. 235.
 Glutton, story of a, iii. 57.
 Gluttony, animals tortured to satisfy, v. 110.
 Glynn, Sir R., iii. 405 n.
 God, iv. 393, 401; ideas of, iv. 242; man's ignorance of, iii. 84; and Nature ('Anti-Lucretius'), iv. 265; "God bless you," and sneezing, iii. 250. *See also* Deity, &c.
 Goddard, A. P., his translation of Guicciardini, iv. 388.
 'Goddess of Silence, The,' 1760, iv. 471.
 Godinot of Rheims, ii. 355.
 Godolphin, Sir W., ii. 447.
 Gods, of Greece, i. 344; *see also* Greece; and idols, iii. 416.
 Godwin, W., on 'Goody Two-Shoes,' v. 350.
 Goguet, A. Y., iv. 342 n.
 'Goguet's Origin of Laws,' &c. (criticism), 1759, iv. 342.
 Goitre, the, in the Alps, ii. 308.
 Golconda, the gem of, iii. 31.
 Golden Bull constitution of the German Empire, v. 38.
 'Golden Dream, The,' v. 398.
 Golden Head, the, v. 401.
 Golden mean, the, v. 401.
 Golden, Peggy, i. 431.
 Goldfinch, the, v. 232.
 Goldfish, iii. 396.
 Goldoni, iii. 490.
 Goldsmith family, the, i. 2. *See also* under the several following names, and under Contarine, Green, Hodson, Johnson, Jones, Lawder, Mills, Neligan, and Niece, Goldsmith's poor.
 — Mrs. Anne (Goldsmith's mother), i. 2 n., 413, 423, 450, 457; Goldsmith's letter to, i. 413.
 — Rev. Charles Goldsmith's father), i. 2 n., 7 n., iii. 48 n., (?) iv. 159. *See also* under Man in black.
 — Charles, Goldsmith's brother, i. 432, 457.
 Goldsmith, Henrietta, of Limerick, ii. 79 n.
 — Rev. Henry, Goldsmith's brother, i. 3 n., 6 n., 8 n., 25 n., 447, 457; ii. 6, l. 9, 33 n., 139 n., iii. 48 n.; dedication of the 'Traveller' to him, ii. 3; letter to, i. 447, ii. 82 n.; and Goldsmith, iv. 403. *See also* Man in black.
 — Dr. Isaac, Dean of Cloyne, i. 50 n.
 — John (Goldsmith's youngest brother), i. 425, 457.
 — John, of Ballyoughter, i. 60 n.
 — Oliver; his Life, Nov. 10, 1728—Ap. 4, 1774, i. 1-58. Other biographical particulars will be found as indicated below, and under such headings as Birthplace, Goldsmith's; College, Goldsmith at; Death, Goldsmith's; Debts, Goldsmith's, &c.
 — anecdotes of him, i. 1, 42-48. *See also* Cooke, *European Magazine*, Hawkins, Johnson, &c., and separate entries, as Fantoccini, Goldsmith and the; Sword, Goldsmith draws his; *also* under names connected, as Pilkington, &c.
 — bibliography. *See* under Works, Goldsmith's; *also* under Editions, and Manuscripts.
 — his biographers, i. 1. *See also* under their names, as Evans, Percy, Scott, Irving, Prior, Forster, Cunningham, Black.
 — his character, i. 1, 22, 25, 26, 37, 38, 43, 44, 45, 48, 49, 50, 471, ii. 53, l. 16, 57, iii. 98, 101, 131, 229 (?), 251, 260, 263, 301, 444, 539, v. 73, 110, 173.
 — criticism of, i. 52, 53, 315, iii. 323, v. 188. *See also* the criticism of separate works, and under the names of the critics; *also* under Poetry, Goldsmith's, &c.
 — his habits, &c., i. 10, 24, 33, 42, *et sq.*, 420, 423, ii. 57, 304,

- iii. 394, v. 168, 173. *See also* under Eccentricities, and separate headings, Flute-playing, Gaming, &c.
- Goldsmith, his Letters, i. 413-477.
- his Memoranda, &c., i. 478-487.
- his personal appearance, i. 42, 456, ii. 390, 394, iii. 11, 48, 112, 391, v. 173. *See also* Portraits.
- his residences, i. 22, 37. *See also* Lissoy, Dublin, Edinburgh, Holland, France, Southwark, Green Arbour Court, Wine Office Court, Yorkshire, Canonbury, Temple, Edgware Road, Barton, &c.; *also* under Country excursions, and Travels.
- his works. *See* under Works: *also* under the names of the separate works.
- Maurice (Goldsmith's brother), i. 455, 457 n.; Goldsmith's letter to, i. 455.
- Good and evil, i. 208, iii. 84; good and evil deities, Persian, iii. 141 n.; the good and the wicked, i. 181; company, i. 146; doing, luxury of, ii. 6, l. 22; fortune, the eight letters of, iii. 151; man, a, when he leaves the body, i. 209; man, a, struggling with adversity, i. 216; sense and good-nature, iii. 147; works, St. Gregory's, i. 123.
- Good, Mr., auctioneer, v. 126 n.
- Good-humour, our hearts are hidden that it may be preserved, v. 202.
- Good-nature, iv. 34, 105; masked, iii. 95; too much, i. 82, iii. 494; vanity and, iii. 291.
- Good-natured fellow, story of a (Jack Spindle), ii. 345.
- “Good-natured man,” S —, called the, iv. 92.
- ‘Good-Natured Man, The,’ 1768, ii. 145-215.
- (notes, &c., on), i. 26, 32, 34, 239, 404, 466, ii. 145, 146, 212, 214, 215.
- ‘Good-Natured Man, The,’ (criticism), i. 57; Burke on, ii. 145; Johnson on, *ib.*
- (cross-references to), iii. 276, 345, 527, iv. 92.
- Good-natured men, iii. 101, 144, 253; people, ii. 336.
- ‘Good Rules, the Twelve,’ ii. 39, l. 232.
- “Good things,” Mr. Hardcastle's, ii. 232; sayers of, iv. 120.
- ‘Goody Two-Shoes, The History of,’ 1763-6 (?), v. 349.
- and the ‘Deserted Village,’ v. 350, 356.
- (notes, &c.), i. 19, ii. 138, v. 350, 355, 356, 367, 397, 404, 405 *et seq.*
- (criticism), v. 350, &c.
- Goose, the, and the mastiff, iii. 230.
- Goose, the Royal Game of, ii. 39, l. 232, 82.
- Gooseberry-wine, Mrs. Primrose's, i. 72.
- Goose-cap, Gaffer, v. 391.
- Gorter, iv. 357.
- Gossiping, iii. 290 n.
- Gothic architecture, ii. 359, iv. 378; language, and the Celtic, iv. 309.
- “Gothic vivacity,” Mr. Hardcastle's, ii. 247.
- Goths, the, &c., iii. 327, iv. 310.
- Göttingen university, iii. 484, 523.
- Gout, the, iii. 217.
- Governing kingdoms and ourselves, iii. 157.
- Government, iii. 188, 368, v. 328.
- the English, iii. 437; grumbling at, iii. 385.
- Governments, ii. 18, l. 427; Butler on, iv. 381; free and despotic, iii. 437, v. 15; systems of, i. 148.
- ‘Gracchi, the, and the Greatest Man of the Age [Pitt], A Parallel between,’ 1760, v. 412.
- Grace, preference of to beauty, iii. 286.

- Graces, the Valley of the, iii. 286.
 Grafton Street, Soho, ii. 466.
 Graham, Rev. Mr., his account of Goldsmith's birthplace and early life, i. 59; his poems, i. 61.
 Grainger, Dr., iv. 408 n., 411 n.; on Goldsmith, i. 410.
 Grammar, i. 326; Goldsmith's English (lost), i. 484; Lily's, i. 261; Wiseman's Grammar, i. 403.
 Grammarians, iii. 465.
 Grammars, &c., writing, iv. 312.
 Grammatical niceties, ii. 409.
Grand Magazine, The, iv. 2 n.
 Grandier, Urban, prosecution of, ii. 460.
 Grandmothers, ii. 234.
 Granville, Lord Lansdown, iv. 422.
 Graspall, Farmer, v. 353.
 Grasshopper, the, the whangam, the yellow-bird, &c. (fable), iii. 362.
 Grass-widow, a, iv. 471.
 Gratitude, bounds of, iv. 37; and friendship, iv. 511; and love, iii. 246.
 Grattan, H. and G., v. 174 n.
 Gravity, iii. 280; the centre of, v. 147; and gaiety, ii. 435.
 Gravy, liking, i. 261.
 Gray, iv. 479, v. 129; censure of, iv. 173; his 'Elegy,' v. 155; quoted, iv. 107, 297; Goldsmith and Johnson on, iv. 176; and his "compound epithets," &c., iv. 335, v. 155; and his school of poetry, iv. 296; and H. Walpole, iv. 296 n.
 'Gray's Odes' (criticism), 1757, iv. 296.
 — (cross-reference), v. 155.
 Gray's Bag [? Essex carrier's], v. 177 n.
Gray's Inn Journal, The, i. 240 n.
 Great, the, they exchange happiness for show, iii. 240; misfortunes of, iii. 367, 428; the truly, iii. 395; and the beautiful, iv. 246: *see also* Sublime, &c.; and the mean, iii. 52. *See also* Princes, Nobility, &c.
 Great man, a, iii. 102; an insupportable, iii. 279.
 Great men, little, ii. 416, iii. 279, ii. 418, iv. 406; troublesome, iv. 487.
 Greatness, conscious, its littleness, iii. 279; periods of in the history of the world, iii. 238.
 'Greatness, the Characteristics of,' 1759, ii. 374.
 Grecian Coffee House, the, iii. 441 n.; Goldsmith there, v. 173 n.
 'Grecian History, The' (introduction), 1774, v. 170.
 — (notes, &c.), i. 28, 486, v. 165, 173, 174.
 — (cross-reference to), iv. 159.
 Greece, i. 333; earliest state of, v. 170; history of, v. 261; rise of the drama there, i. 345; the learning of, iii. 470; mythology of, i. 344, iv. 307, v. 171. *See also* Greeks.
 Greek, authors, iii. 284; language, i. 360, 385; at Louvain University, i. 164; verse, i. 382-85.
 'Greek Tragedies, Burton's' (criticism), 1758, iv. 315.
 Greeks, the, iv. 305; their Kalkagatha, ii. 426; liberated by the Romans, i. 332; their republic, v. 259.
 Green, Charles, astronomer, ii. 95 n.
 Green, Mrs., actress, ii. 146, ii. 215 n., ii. 217.
 Green, Rev., of Kilkenny, Goldsmith's uncle, i. 2, 4 n.
 Green Arbour Court, Fleet Street (No. 12), Goldsmith's lodgings there, i. 18, 447, ii. 371, 373 n., iv. 463.
 Green peas, three pounds for a plate of, i. 302.
 Green sickness, the, i. 329.
 Greenfinch, the, v. 229.
 Greenland tale, a burlesque, by Goldsmith, v. 413.

- Greenwich Hill, i. 431.
 — Park, Lord Chesterfield's house there, iv. 225 n.
 Gregories, the two (highwaymen), iv. 383, 384 n., 385 n.
 Gregory [? Dr. D.], astronomer, v. 344.
 Grenadiers' march, the, iv. 472.
 Gresset, iii. 495, iv. 479.
 Gretna-Green marriages. *See* Scotch marriages.
 Greville, Fulk, Lord Brooke, iv. 424.
 Grief, ii. 376; the manliness of, ii. 44, l. 384.
 Griersons, the printers, v. 404 n.
 Grievances, imaginary, iii. 369.
 Griffin, the, iii. 60 n.
 Griffin, Rev. Mr., of Elphin, i. 4.
 Griffin, W., publisher, i. 201, 460, 473, 484, 485, 486, v. 153 n.
 Griffith, Farran, and Co., publishers, v. 408.
 Griffiths, Mrs., and the *Monthly Review*. *See* Griffiths, Ralph.
 Griffiths, Ralph, i. 445, iii. 50; his relations with Goldsmith, i. 17, 18, 445, 446 n., 478, iii. 503 n., iv. 2, 3 n., 303 n., 322, 338 n.; v. 3 n., 4 n.; Goldsmith's letter to him, i. 445; and the *Monthly Review*, iv. 249 n., 257 n., 291; and Smollett, iv. 257.
 Grig, Lord, ii. 184.
 Gripe, Sir Timothy, v. 353.
 Griper, the, Godinot so called, ii. 355.
 Grisoni, iii. 209.
 Grogan, Mr. and Mrs., i. 308; Mr. Grogan's Letters on the Coronation of George III., i. 304-310.
 Grogram family, the, i. 140.
 'Grondeur, Le,' D. A. Brueys', ii. 295 n.
 Grosvenor, Lady, ii. 48 n.
 Grotius, his 'Adamus Exul' and 'Paradise Lost,' ii. 55 n.
 "Grouse, Ould, in the gun-room," Mr. Hardcastle's story, ii. 232.
 Grove, Farmer, v. 385.
 Grub Street, ii. 309, 363, 417, 507 n.; the *antiqua mater* of, i. 157; authors, ii. 47 n., ii. 56, l. 117; its criticism, ii. 307, 309.
 'Grumbler, The,' Burnet's, iv. 178.
 'Grumbler, The,' Sir C. Sedley's, ii. 295 n.
 'Grumbler, The,' 1773, ii. 293-300.
 — (notes, &c., on), ii. 295.
 Grumbletonian, a, ii. 228.
 Guarini, iii. 481.
 Guebres, the, iii. 138.
 Guests, poor, i. 72.
 Guicciardini, F., iv. 388, v. 140; his 'History of Italy,' iv. 388.
 Guigne, de, M. *See* De Guigne.
 Guilt, i. 143, ii. 376, iii. 422; and shame, an allegory, i. 131.
 Guilty, only the, are completely miserable, i. 178.
 Gumley, John, iv. 184 n.
 Gumley, Miss, iv. 184.
 Gunnings, the, "beautiful Miss," i. 422.
 Gustavus Adolphus, ii. 331; his scheme for preventing duels, iv. 151.
 Guthrie, W., v. 129; his Parliamentary reports in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, iv. 435 n.
 'Guy Mannering,' Scott's, iv. 103 n.
 Gwyn, Mrs., v. 411 n.; her reminiscences of Goldsmith, ii. 94. *See also* Horneck, Miss Mary.
 Gylfe, or Gangler, of Sweden, iv. 235.
 H——, Lady, of Bath, iv. 84.
 H. B.'s edition of Goldsmith, i. 58, v. 143. * * This edition dates earlier than we have stated at i. 58 n. It was published at Edinburgh in 1833, being one of the Chambers' earliest books; but apparently that was not its first edition. Mr. Forster (vol. ii., p. 237) hazarded the conjecture that the editor was Mr. Buchanan, afterwards Hamilton Buchanan, who wrote some

- books upon India and kindred subjects ; but we have found no confirmation of this.
- H—l—n— Judge = Judge R. Hellen, iv. 285 n.
- Habits, i. 38, 42, iv. 131.
- Hack writing of books, iii. 110, 114, 115, 191.
- Hagley, Shenstone's garden near, i. 394.
- Hague, the, iv. 62.
- Hainault scythe, the, iii. 390.
- Hair, white, in Sweden, ii. 330.
- Hair-dressing, iii. 19.
- Haitong, Emperor, iii. 159.
- Hale, Sir Matthew, his belief in witchcraft, ii. 459.
- Hales, Dr., v. 123, 125.
- Halfpenny dinner, a, ii. 348.
- Halifax, Earl of (Montague), iv. 420.
- Haller, iii. 490.
- Halter, hangman's, shown, iii. 170.
- Haly, the Persian prophet, iii. 417.
- Hamilton, A., of the *Critical Review*, i. 26, iv. 410, 413, 416 ; and Goldsmith, iv. 410 n., 411 ; and Smollett, iv. 410 n.
- Hamilton-Buchanan. *See* H. B.
- Hamilton, Elizabeth, Duchess of, i. 422.
- Hamilton, James, fourth Duke of, i. 422 ; Goldsmith employed by, in Edinburgh, i. 425, 474 n., iii. 102 n.
- Hamilton, Mr., of the Pretender's party, iv. 201.
- Hamilton, Marquis of (temp. Ch. I.), v. 314.
- 'Hamlet,' absurdities in, i. 364-370.
- Hammond, poet, iv. 338.
- Hammond, Mr., iii. 405 n.
- Hampden, John, iv. 459, v. 321 ; death of, v. 324 ; and "Ship-money," v. 313.
- Hampstead, iii. 442 n.
- Hampstead Hill (?), i. 431 n.
- Hampton Court, William III. at, v. 342.
- Hamti, Emperor, iii. 87. *See also* Honti.
- 'Han Kiou Choaan,' a Chinese novel, iv. 351 n.
- Hancock, Dr., of Salisbury, iv. 114.
- Handcock, Rev. Dr., i. 423 ; his Goldsmith collection, i. 423 n., 435 n.
- Handel, and his school of music, i. 386, 388, 390 ; statue of at Vauxhall, iii. 270 n.
- Handkerchiefs, portraits on, i. 436.
- "Handsome is that handsome does," i. 73.
- Hand-writing, Goldsmith's, i. 466 n.
- Hanged, born to be, i. 302 ; at Newgate, i. 303.
- Hanmer, Sir T., 'Correspondence,' i. 465 ; ii. 106 n.
- Hannah, cousin, ii. 326.
- Hanover, an Elector of, iii. 484 ; and France, v. 52.
- 'Hans Carvel,' Prior's, i. 29, v. 159.
- Hanway, Jonas, iv. 269 n. ; his 'Journey,' 'Essay on Tea,' &c., *ib.*, iv. 412 n. ; Johnson on, iv. 269 n., 274 n.
- Hanway's 'Eight Days' Journey, 'Essay on Tea,' &c. (criticism), 1757, iv. 269.
- (notes), iv. 269, 274, 412.
- Happiness, i. 199, iii. 69 n., iv. 506 ; family, i. 141 ; fireside, i. 90 ; Confucius on, iii. 242 ; Plato on, ii. 436 ; Seneca on, ii. 436 ; in anticipation, i. 108 ; ever flies before us, iv. 474 ; lost by seeking after refinement, iii. 29 ; of the poor is ignorance, iii. 307 ; the pursuit of, i. 395 ; the search for, iii. 343, v. 119 ; unforeseen sources of, i. 179.
- 'Happiness dependent on Constitution,' ii. 334 ; is constitutional, i. 84, 275, iii. 169, 178 ; and knowledge, iii. 178 ; and philosophy, ii. 435 ; and show,

- iii. 240; and wisdom, iii. 138, 165.
- Happy, making men, iii. 88, iv. 59; the wisdom of being, iii. 31; the, and the miserable, i. 208; 'Happy Moslem, Omrah, the,' v. 412.
- 'Happy Valley,' Johnson's, and Goldsmith's Valley of Ignorance, iii. 139.
- Har, iv. 235.
- Harcourt and Parnell, iv. 177.
- Hardcastle, Miss, ii. 222; her song, ii. 110.
- Hardcastle, Mr., ii. 220.
- Hardcastle, Mrs., ii. 220.
- Hardships of life, the real, i. 178.
- Hardwick, Lord, his marriage act, iii. 271 n.
- Harlequin, in Holland, i. 428; the, who would act, ii. 115.
- Harley, Hon. Mr., iii. 405 n.
- Harley, R. (Lord Oxford), iv. 30, 196 n.; and Bolingbroke, iv. 186, 190, 215 n.; and Parnell, iv., 161, 162.
- Harlowe, S. H., i. 462 n.
- "Harmless, a," being, iii. 206; a ditto creature, iv. 131.
- Harmonical Club, the, i. 254.
- Harmonical Society, the, i. 249.
- Harper, Carolan the, i. 393.
- Harrington, Dr., of Bath, iv. 134.
- Harris, John, bookseller of St. Paul's churchyard, i. 35 n., 239; v. 407 n.
- Harrison, T., of Bath, iv. 66.
- Harrison's (Bath), iv. 84 n., 102.
- Harrow, landlord of the, i. 171.
- Harvey, W. (?), v. 91.
- Harwood, inventor of porter, iv. 413 n.
- Haslerig, Sir A., v. 321.
- Hastings (in 'She Stoops'), ii. 228.
- Hastings, Miss Jenny, i. 403.
- Hastings, Warren, Johnson's letter to, iii. 391 n.
- Hathaway, Richard, impostor, ii. 477.
- 'Haunch of Venison, The,' 1771, ii. 46-50.
- (notes, &c.), i. 56, 62, ii. 50, 91.
- Have-at-alls, the iv. 67.
- Hawes, Dr., attends Goldsmith in his fatal illness, i. 38.
- Hawke, Admiral, iii. 29.
- Hawkesworth, Dr., v. 409.
- Hawkins, Sir J., his story of Goldsmith and Roubiliac, i. 13, 389; and The Club, i. 23; on Goldsmith, i. 25; iii. 394 n.
- Hawkins, Rev. W., iv. 392, 399.
- 'Hawkins, Rev. W., his Works,' (criticism), 1759-60, iv. 392, 399.
- "Hawthorn bush, the," ii. 33, l. 13.
- Hayes, Mr. and Mrs., relations of Parnell, iv. 178.
- Hayman, his pictures at Vauxhall, iii. 270 n.
- Hay-field, work in the, i. 91.
- Haymarket, the, a learned pigeon there, v. 375.
- Haymarket Theatre, ii. 114, l. 9; iv. 434 n.; Jerrold's 'Beau Nash' at, 1834, iv. 114 n.
- Hazard, game, iv. 79.
- Hazlitt, W., his 'Conversations of Northcote,' ii. 94 n.
- Head and face, the, v. 201.
- Headless men, stories of, iii. 61.
- Health, &c., rules for, iv. 500, v. 366; of children, ii. 404.
- "Heart, the, is the son of the liver, and has the stomach for its wife," &c., iii. 257; the heart should be like a mirror, iii. 31; a broken, v. 203; and head culture, i. 334; and the understanding, i. 130.
- Hearts, commune with your own, i. 182, 186; Nature hides our hearts, to preserve our good humour, v. 202.
- Heath, Mr., iv. 316.
- Heathen deities in churches, ii. 413.
- Heaven, the kindness of, i. 175; the poor man in, i. 210.

- Heber, his Goldsmith collection, iv. 407 n.
 Hecateus, v. 134.
 Hedge-lane, ii. 201.
 Hedges, J., a gamester, story of, iv. 146.
 Heinel, Mdle., dancer, ii. 112, 290.
 Hellen, Judge R., iv. 285 n.; his (?) 'Armenian in Ireland,' iv. 285.
 Helme, Miss, actress, ii. 294.
 Hen, don't sell your, on a rainy day, i. 117.
 Henderson, William, a quaker, iv. 103.
 'Henriade,' Voltaire's, iv. 10, 33, 37; Purdon's translation of, iv. 2, 3, 35 n.
 Henriquez, Jacob, i. 315, 316, iii. 397.
 Henry III., v. 279.
 Henry IV., iv. 442, v. 285.
 Henry V., v. 285; at Agincourt, v. 288; his massacre of prisoners there, v. 290; his persecution of the Wickliffites, i. 282, v. 285; and the Duke of Alençon, v. 286; and David Gam the Welshman [? Fluellen], iii. 452, v. 289; and his officers, iii. 452.
 Henry VI., i. 288; introduced printing, iv. 442.
 Henry VII., i. 289, iii. 453, v. 302, 310.
 Henry VIII., iv. 444, v. 291; the first "Defender of the Faith," v. 295; his divorce, v. 295; gaming by, i. 289; his scholarship, v. 294.
 Henry IV. of Denmark, v. 206.
 Henry IV. of France, his generosity, i. 333.
 'Henry and Rosamond,' Rev. W. Hawkins', iv. 398.
 Hercules, iv. 487, v. 171.
 Hereditary right, v. 169.
 Heretics, the burning of, i. 283, ii. 411, iii. 27.
 Hermaphrodite fish, v. 109.
 Hermes Trismegistus, iv. 308.
 Hermit, the, and Mencius, iii. 248.
 'Hermit, The:' see 'Edwin and Angelina.'
 'Hermit, The,' Parnell's, ii. 21 n., iv. 176.
 'Hermit of Warkworth,' Percy's, ii. 21 n.
 Heroes, ii. 379; and demi-gods, 111, 416.
 Heroism and barbarity, v. 290.
 Heron, the, v. 221.
 Herring shoals, v. 107; have abandoned the coasts of Germany, *ib.*; fishery subscription and mania, the, ii. 416, iii. 397 n.
 Hervey (? Harvey, W.), v. 91.
 Hervey, quoted, i. 303; and S. Boyse, v. 151.
 Hervey, Lord, his 'Memoirs,' iv. 211 n.
 'Hesiod,' Parnell's, iv. 174.
 Hewet, J., and Sarah Drew. See under Gay, John.
 Heyman and Van Egmont's Travels. See Egmont.
 Hexameters, English, i. 385.
 Hickey, Mr., attorney, epitaph on, ii. 53, l. 15; 57, l. 125.
 Hicks, Dr., on the Anglo-Saxon language, iv. 438.
 "Hiff—" = Hiffernan, Paul, ii. 47, l. 27.
 Higgins, Capt., i. 34 n.; ii. 47, l. 29.
 High life, iii. 210; talk, &c., i. 104, 112; rushing into, iv. 498.
 'High Life Below Stairs, On the Late Farce Called,' 1759, ii. 395.
 — (notes), ii. 396, iii. 193.
 Highbury Barn, iii. 441 n.
 Highlanders and Irish, i. 391.
 Highlands, the, i. 419.
 Highway robberies, ii. 329.
 Highwaymen, ii. 281; the two Gregories, iv. 383, 384 n., 385 n.; and ladies, iv. 374.
 Hill, Aaron, iv. 418.
 Hill, Sir John, i. 37 n., ii. 390.
 Hingpo, the Chinese Philosopher's

- son, his narrative, iii. 133, 136, 138, 221, 373, 443.
- Hissing plays, ii. 96, l. 24, 148 ; at Goldsmith's 'Good-Natured Man,' ii. 214, 215 n.
- Historian, the, iii. 476, iv. 256, v. 258.
- Historians, iv. 388 ; the best, ii. 407 ; dull, v. 162 ; their treatment of character, v. 330 ; and poets, iv. 280.
- Histories, Goldsmith's, his authorities, v. 172 n. ; errors in, v. 179 n. ; his method of writing them, v. 168 n. ; his school histories, v. 165 ; Johnson on, i. 28, 29.
- See also under* 'Roman History,' 'England, History of,' &c.
- History, iii. 118, v. 66, 129, 134 ; ancient, v. 129, 264 ; early, v. 262 ; false, iii. 59 ; as told in French memoirs, iv. 275 ; universal, v. 132, 259 ; Bolingbroke's and St. Real's views of, iv. 217 ; as entertainment, v. 163 ; the study of, i. 334, 337, v. 254, 259 ; teaching, ii. 407, iii. 525 ; writing, iv. 53, 254, 461, v. 137, 162, 167 ; and anecdote, v. 136 ; and morals, iii. 525 ; Bolingbroke's Letters on, iv. 217.
- 'History of England.' *See* 'England,' &c.
- 'History of our Own Language.' *See* 'Language,' &c.
- 'History of a Philosophic Vagabond' (George Primrose's story), i. 155.
- 'History of the World' (Preface), 1764, v. 129.
- (cross-reference), v. 258.
- Hoadley, Bishop, ii. 424 n.
- Hoare, W., R.A., his portrait of Beau Nash, iv. 49 n.
- "Hob and nob," iii. 219.
- Hobbes, iv. 268, v. 334 ; on pride and laughter, ii. 436.
- Hodson, Daniel, Esq., Goldsmith's brother-in-law, i. 429, 457, 460 n. : Goldsmith's letters to, i. 429, 442.
- Hodson, Daniel, Goldsmith's nephew, ii. 141 n.
- Mrs., Goldsmith's sister, i. 413 n., 432, 450 n. ; her account of Goldsmith, i. 410, 413, 417, 429, 474 n.
- Oliver Goldsmith, Goldsmith's nephew, i. 460.
- Oliver Goldsmith, Goldsmith's grand-nephew, i. 62 n.
- Hoey, Van, Dutch ambassador, v. 55.
- Hog in a gate, as loud as a, ii. 249.
- Hog-in-the-Pound, Tyburn, ii. 109.
- Hogan, Capt., of Auburn, near Ballymahon, his relics of Goldsmith, &c., ii. 139 n.
- Hogarth, surgeon, ii. 47 n.
- Hogarth, W., his 'Beer-street' and 'Gin-lane,' iv. 413 n. ; his 'Harlot's Progress,' ii. 305 n. ; his 'Morning,' iv. 23 n. ; his pictures at Vauxhall, iii. 270 n. ; his 'Rake's Progress,' v. 224 n. ; on connoisseurs, iii. 513.
- Hogendorp, Mr., iii. 132.
- Hoggs, the two Miss, ii. 220.
- Hogs-Norton squires, iv. 70.
- Holberg, Baron, i. 12 ; Goldsmith and, iii. 488.
- Holinshed, Shakspeare's use of, iv. 429.
- Holland, i. 152, 163, 427 n., iii. 188, v. 19, 25 ; Calvinism in, v. 311 ; book publishing in, iii. 487 ; Goldsmith's studies in, iii. 490 n. ; going to law in, ii. 384 ; literature of, iii. 487, 490, 531 ; William III. (of England) as stadtholder there, v. 335 ; and the Dutch, ii. 14, l. 281.
- Holland, actor, ii. 309.
- Holland, Philemon, iv. 458.
- Holles, Lord. *See* Hollis.
- Hollis, Mr., = Denzil, Lord Holles, v. 321.
- Holt, Chief-Justice, v. 176.
- Holtom, actor, ii. 146.

- Home, nearing, i. 176; for tranquillity, iii. 374.
- Home, Rev. John, iv. 249 n.; his 'Douglas,' iii. 76 n., iv. 249.
- Homer, i. 335, 357, 360, 364, 371, 374, 375, 378, 380, 394, iii. 530, iv. 362; in Elysium, iv. 489; living and dead, iv. 489; his Margites, i. 349; his Odyssey, i. 378; his poverty, iii. 314; and his commentators, iv. 489; Plato and Cicero on, i. 344-5, 355; "the scourge of" (Zoilus), ii. 363; La Motte's, ii. 358; Macpherson's, ii. 55, l. 87; Ogilby's, i. 353; Pope's, i. 355; ditto, lines altered, i. 357; ditto, Parnell's share in it, iv. 162.
- Honest man, an, the noblest work of God, Pope's maxim criticized, i. 130.
- Honesty, ii. 432.
- Honeywood, Mr., the 'Good-Natured Man,' ii. 150, &c.
- Honeywood, Sir William, ii. 148.
- Honour, the French and, ii. 14, l. 258; life and, ii. 76; and commerce, ii. 9, l. 92.
- Honours, i. 456, iii. 69 n.; ditto (decorations), iii. 241; of war, iii. 155.
- Honti, the emperor, iii. 94.
- Hooke, N., his Hist. Rome, v. 163.
- Hooker, v. 309.
- Hooker's horse (staff), i. 79.
- Hoop dresses, ii. 81, l. 14, iii. 302.
- Hope, Goldsmith's address to, iii. 12.
- Hopes, fatal, i. 87.
- Hoping, a knack at, i. 155.
- Horace, i. 335, 371, 374; on art and nature, i. 324; on the critic, i. 331; on poetry, i. 340; quoted, ii. 388, iii. 289, iv. 47; on translating, i. 336; Francis's translation of, used by Goldsmith, i. 325 n.; Creech's, i. 353; and Scaliger in Elysium, iv. 488.
- Hormizda, iii. 141.
- Horneck, Captain, i. 34 n., ii. 94, l. 18.
- Horneck, Miss Catherine, i. 62 n., ii. 94, l. 17.
- Miss Mary, i. 42 n., 239 n., ii. 94, l. 14, 108; Kenrick insults, and Goldsmith resents the insult, i. 34. *See also* Hornecks, the, and Gwyn, Mrs.
- Mrs., ii. 94, l. 11, v. 410.
- Hornecks, the, i. 460; and Goldsmith, i. 42; Goldsmith takes them to Paris, i. 32 n., 457 n., iv. 180 n.
- Hornpipe (dance), ii. 298.
- Hornsey Row, Islington, ii. 300 n.
- Horror, scenes of, in art, i. 338.
- Horse, two faults of a, iv. 357.
- Horse-racing and the nobility, iii. 322. *See also* Races, &c.
- Horses, English, v. 210; small, in the Highlands, i. 419; tails, docked, iii. 303.
- Hospitality, i. 91.
- Hospitals and the poor, v. 176 n.
- Hot cockles (game), i. 111, 285.
- Hotham, Sir John, at Hull, v. 323.
- House, an old-fashioned, ii. 220, 233; furniture, &c., temp. 1700, iv. 64.
- Houseless, the, ii. 42, l. 326, 378, iii. 433.
- Houses, numbering, iii. 16 n.; houses, &c., at Bath, temp. 1700, iv. 66; the falling of houses, v. 384.
- 'Housewife, The Complete,' ii. 248.
- 'How softly the zephyrs' (song), iv. 505.
- Howard (?), ii. 47, l. 27.
- Howard, Hon. Edward, iv. 372 n., 373.
- Howel, his Letters, iv. 176.
- Hoyden Hall, iv. 70.
- Hoyle, editor of the 'Games,' iv. 150.
- Hucks (brewer), iv. 413 n.
- 'Hudibras,' Butler's, Sidrophel in, iv. 370 n.
- Hudibrastic verse attributed to Goldsmith, v. 409; ii. 337.
- Huffum, Sir Humphry, v. 390.
- Hugginson family, the, i. 140.

- Hughes (poet), iv. 418.
 Hughes, Rev. Mr. (Goldsmith's schoolmaster), i. 4, 6, 60 n.
 Huguenots in England, v. 334.
 Hull, Sir J. Hotham at, v. 323.
 "Human kind, the lords of," ii. 16, l. 328.
 Human, bliss, ii. 58, l. 8; infirmity, i. 287; nature, iii. 84, 415, v. 398; villainy, iii. 338.
 Humanity, iii. 162; fools are children of, i. 256; the heart's, iii. 285; interest in, i. 329; too high an opinion of, i. 263, iii. 415; Goldsmith (?), "one who lays claim" to it, v. 110.
 "Humanity, Sir, is a jewel," ii. 176.
 Humboldt, Baron Von, on Gemelli's travels, iii. 388 n.
 Hume, Alex., M.P., iii. 405 n.
 Hume, David, his attacks upon religion, ii. 393; his 'Four Dissertations,' iv. 253 n.; his 'History,' i. 354, ii. 393, v. 168; his principles, v. 169; on Shakspeare, Otway, and John Home, iv. 253 n.; and the *Critical Review*, iv. 295 n.; and Reynolds, iv. 20 n.; and Wilkie's 'Epigoniad,' iv. 288 n., 295 n.
 Humdrum Club, the, i. 249.
 Humility, iii. 178; apparent, v. 330.
 Humour, ii. 145, iv. 283, 397; English and foreign, iii. 532; iv. 283; stage, i. 401; Tony Lumpkin's, ii. 221; and pertness, iii. 202; and ribaldry, i. 67; and wit, iii. 515. *See also* Comedy, &c.
 'Humourist, The,' article on 'Witchcraft' from, ii. 438.
 Humourists, the English a nation of, iii. 95.
 Humphry, Ozias, R. A., iv. 74 n.
 Hungary, Queen of, v. 33. *See also* Maria Theresa.
 Hunger, v. 203; as a sharpener of genius, iii. 347.
 'Hung-how-Mung.' *See* 'Red Chamber Dreams.'
 Hunt the slipper (game), i. 111.
 Hurricanes, routs, and whirlwinds (parties), iv. 472.
 Husband, lying-in of the Indian, iii. 337.
 Husbandman, a, i. 67.
 Husbands, choosing and managing, iii. 328.
 Hutcheson (? F.), his definition of beauty, v. 261.
 Hutchinsonians, the, iv. 310.
 Huygens, v. 148.
 Hyacinthe, St., or Cordonnier, iv. 184.
 Hyæna, the, iii. 300.
 Hyde, Edgware Road, Goldsmith's lodging there, i. 38 n., 461, 464 n., v. 217 n.
 Hyde, Lord. *See* Cornbury, Viscount.
 Hyder Ally (or Ali), Sultan of Mysore, temp. the Warren Hastings troubles, ii. 237.
 Hydrophobia, iii. 261.
 Hypatia, ii. 313.
 'Hypatia, The History of,' ii. 348.
 'Hypatia,' Kingsley's, ii. 352 n.
 Hyperbole, i. 363.
 'Hyperbole, On,' 1762, i. 378.
 — (note), i. 407.
 Hypochondriasis, ii. 441; iii. 336. *See also* Spleen.
 Hypocrisy, this age of, ii. 245; and charity, iv. 107.
 Hypocrite, a, ii. 378.
 Iceland, the Edda, &c., iv. 234.
 Ideal, the, in art, i. 337-8.
 'Idiot, an inspired,' Horace Walpole's alleged character of Goldsmith, i. 47, 63 n.
 "Idiot in the affairs of the world," Goldsmith an (Hawkins), i. 25.
 Idleness, iii. 313; the penalties of, iv. 499.
 'Idler,' Johnson's, iii. 458 n.
 Idols, demi-gods, &c., iii. 416; setting up, iii. 280; worship of, iv. 243.

- 'Igluka, Sibbersik and,' v. 413.
 Ignorance, assuming, v. 256; is the happiness of the poor, iii. 307; the philosopher confesses it, v. 114; and happiness, iii. 138.
 Ignorance, the Valley of, iii. 139, 143.
 Ignorant, the, virtues of, iii. 374; wisdom of, iii. 292.
 Ilixofou, the immortal, ii. 416.
 Ill-nature and wit, iii. 511.
 Illuminations, London, for victories, &c., iv. 463; at Vauxhall, iii. 267.
 Imagination, v. 60, 238; a foe to contentment, i. 396.
 Imitating a cat, &c., iii. 202.
 Imitation, i. 352, iii. 475; in art, i. 337-8; and originality, iv. 364; and realism, i. 339.
 Imitations of old English poets, v. 155.
 Immoralities of fiction, v. 151. *See also* Novels, &c.
 Immortality of the soul, iv. 393, 401.
 Immortals, flattered, iv. 487.
Imperial Magazine, The, iii. 397.
 'Impetuous Lover, The' (criticism), 1757, iv. 274.
 Imports, ii. 386. *See also* Free trade, &c.
 Impostors, ii. 477. *See also* 'Cock-Lane Ghost,' &c.
 Improvement, i. 396.
 Improvements, the, ii. 225.
 Imprudent! she was, iv. 92.
 Impudence, i. 450, ii. 304.
 In-and-in, game, iv. 79.
 Incendiary report, an, iii. 386; the incendiary letter sent to Croaker, ii. 193.
 Incurables (poets), Pope Urban's Hospital for, iii. 314.
 Independence, iii. 105; English, ii. 16, l. 340; the dignity of, iii. 316; "a genteel," i. 444; a life of, praised, iii. 365.
 Independents, the, and the Great Rebellion, v. 327, 330.
 "Index-learning," iv. 347 n.
 Index maker, an, iii. 110; index making, ii. 305.
 India, court flatterers in, iii. 398; Goldsmith's idea of going there, i. 442, 448. *See also* Coromandel.
 India warehouses, the, iv. 304.
 "Indian, the brown," ii. 18, l. 414; the Indian husband, iii. 337.
 Indians, Caribbee, i. 317. *See also* Cherokee.
 Indifference a provocative to love, iv. 87.
 Indigence, iii. 313.
 Indigent Philosopher, the, i. 260, 261.
 Indiscretions, the, of youth, ii. 192.
 Indulgences (Papal), sale of, v. 293.
 Industry, ii. 432; begets a love of gain, ii. 15, l. 300; plodding, commended, iii. 263; home, and foreign trade, i. 150.
 "Industry, the Waggon of," ii. 389.
 Infamy, fear of, iii. 457.
 Infant prodigies, v. 199.
 'Infernal Magazine,' the, i. 259.
 Infidelity, i. 284; spread of, i. 258; and belief, iv. 395.
 Inflaming the nation, i. 312.
 Ingram, Dr. Dale, iii. 260 n.
 Iniquity and argument, ii. 475.
 Innocence, i. 331; triumphant in the end, ii. 435.
 Innovation, iii. 369; v. 316.
 Innovator, the fate of an, iii. 496.
 Inn, country, bar-maids of a, ii. 289; rooms in an, ii. 200; an inn scene, *ib.*; the village, ii. 39, l. 219; death an inn, ii. 100, l. 79.
 Inns, ii. 233; their reckonings, *ib.*; Scotch, bad fare at, iii. 519.
 Inns of Court, their pageants, &c., to royalty, iv. 58.
 Inoculation, ii. 247.
 Inquisition, the, ii. 475, v. 137 n.; Father Freijo and, ii. 361; and Spain, v. 57.

- 'Insects, Of,' v. 111; sagacity of, ii. 369; in winter, v. 242.
 'Insects, Sagacity of Some.' *See* 'Sagacity,' &c.
 'Inspector, The,' Hill's, ii. 391.
 Inspector of Great Britain, the (Jacob Henriques), iii. 397.
 'Instinct, An Essay on,' v. 413 n.
 Instinct in animals, iii. 292; of the dog, &c., v. 383; and reason, ii. 77, l. 15; v. 211.
 Instruction, amusing, iii. 514.
 Integrity, i. 130.
 Intrepidity, iii. 433.
 Invasion and other panics, iii. 259, 385.
 Invention, i. 338, 352.
 Inventions in Asiatic and barbarous countries, iii. 388.
 Inventors and the State, ii. 387.
 Ipswich, Wolsey's school at, iv. 444.
 Ireland, i. 418, 430, 431, 440; Celtic remains in, v. 268; Goldsmith's projects for returning to, i. 432, 444, ii. 36, l. 79; his reticence on, iv. 287 n.; the grievances of, 1756-7, iv. 285; Jas. II. and Will. III. in, v. 335; 'Letters from an Armenian in,' iv. 285; massacre of Protestants there, v. 319; the Parliament of, iv. 286; music of, i. 387, 391; piratical publishers in, i. 434, 441; no toads in, v. 240; Congreve and, i. 59 n.; Goldsmith and, *ib.*; Swift and, *ib.* *See also* Irish, Celtic, &c.
 "Iris, To, in Bow Street, Covent Garden," ii. 80.
 Irish, the, iii. 25, 28, iv. 286; their ancient bards, i. 392; bondage to England, i. 393; carols, iii. 513; funerals and feasts, i. 393; houses, ii. 46, l. 9; soldiers, iii. 455; v. 337; and Biscayan languages, iv. 307; and the Highlanders, i. 391.
 Irishmen, ii. 113. *See also* Ireland, Celtic, &c.
 Irresolution, of the English, iii. 437; and reason, iii. 437.
 Irving, Washington, on Goldsmith, i. n. 18, ii. 74 n., 108 n., v. 350. * * It is not generally known that Irving's famous 'Life of Goldsmith' first appeared prefatory to an English reprint of Percy's edition of the 'Works' published in Paris by Galignani. This was in 1825, when Irving was resident in France.
 Isis, or Nature, iii. 308 n.
 Islington, ii. 90, l. 5, ii. 300 n., 328 n., 362, 414, iii. 110, 441; turnpike, i. 255; Goldsmith and, iii. 110 n., 441 n. *See also* Canonbury.
 Isocrates, i. 335; his advice, "study the people," iv. 296.
 Israelites. *See* Jews.
 Isthmian games, i. 332.
 Italian, acting, ii. 310; comedy, in Holland, i. 428; historians, iv. 388; opera, ii. 452; soldiery, iv. 391; theatre, iii. 304.
 Italians, the, i. 54 n., iii. 25, 26.
 Italy, ii. 9, l. 106; iii. 228, iv. 388; the Augustan age of, ii. 444; academies of, ii. 417 [* * For some account of the now "long forgotten" academies which swarmed Italy in the eighteenth century, *see* Vernon Lee's 'Academy of the Arcadi,' *Fraser's Magazine*, 1878]; Goldsmith's wanderings in, i. 14, v. 207, 243; learning in, ii. 417; literature of, iii. 479, 490, 510, 531; music of, i. 167, 386-8, 391; the neglected painters of, ii. 398; modern poetry of, iii. 481; the singers of, iv. 481; and England, v. 23; and France, wars between, i. 180. *See also* Genoa, Venice, &c.
 'Italy, History of, Guicciardini's' (criticism), 1759, iv. 388.
 Itch, the, in Scania, ii. 330.
 Ivy Lane, the Humdrum Club in, i. 249.
 Ivy tree, the, story of, iii. 99.

- J. B., Goldsmith's signature, ii. 89, iv. 264 n.
- J. C. C. (in the *Cornhill Magazine*), his account of Voltaire in England, iv. 35 n.
- J——e, of Bath, iv. 81.
- Jack Bookworm, ii. 84, l. 2, ii. 89 n.
- Jack of Newbury, iv. 185.
- Jack Reptile, an Antigallican, iv. 469.
- Jack Slang, ii. 222.
- Jack Spindle, the story of, ii. 345.
- Jack Varnish, ii. 431.
- Jacob, Hildbrand, iii. 407.
- Jacob, Sir John, iii. 407 n.
- Jacobite, conspiracies of Bolingbroke, &c., iv. 199 ; principles, Goldsmith's and Johnson's, alleged, i. 46.
- Jacobites, the, iv. 464.
- Jacobs, chemist of Monument Yard, where Goldsmith worked, i. 16 n.
- Jacob's pillow, iii. 52.
- Jafnar, iv. 235.
- Jag-hire, a, ii. 168.
- Jaguar, the, iv. 260 n.
- Jail, being in, iii. 430.
- Jamaica, the acquisition of, v. 14.
- James I., v. 12, 57 ; his learning, &c., iv. 459 ; his translation of the Bible and Prayer Book, iv. 552 ; his superstition, ii. 459 ; on witches, ii. 442 ; the writers of his time, ii. 444, iv. 452 ; and his officers, iii. 454.
- James II., when Duke of York, v. 333 ; his last attempts upon England, v. 339 ; and his officers, iii. 456 ; and William III., in Ireland, v. 335.
- James V. of Scotland, i. 392.
- Jameson, Miss, singer, ii. 97.
- James's, Dr., Powder, v. 357, 407 n. ; Goldsmith takes in his fatal illness, i. 38.
- Japan, iii. 425, 427 ; audience of an envoy in, iii. 425 ; severe laws of, iii. 298.
- Japanese, the, iii. 21, 128 ; and suicide, iv. 354.
- Jarcus, his list of academies in Italy, ii. 417.
- Jarvis, ii. 148.
- Jason, v. 171.
- Jaw, the, in animals, v. 199 ; movability of the upper jaw, Goldsmith's story of Prof. M'Laurin, v. 199.
- Jealousy, ii. 433.
- Jeffrey, Cousin, ii. 326.
- Jeffreys, George, his translation of Vida's 'Chess,' ii. 118 n.
- Jeffries, Miss, iv. 434.
- 'Jemima and Louisa' (criticism), 1759, iv. 386.
- Jenkinson, Ephraim, cheats Moses Primrose, i. 119 ; imposes upon the Vicar, i. 123 ; quotes Greek authors, &c., i. 125 ; in prison, i. 189.
- Jennens, Mr. (? relative of the Duchess of Marlborough), iv. 100.
- Jenners, a gambler who shot himself, iv. 142.
- Jenny, ii. 294, 296.
- Jenny, Goldsmith's cousin, Mrs. Lawder, i. 425. *See also* Mrs. Lawder.
- Jenny Dismal, Miss, ii. 346.
- Jenny Up-and-down, Miss, iv. 472.
- "Jernigan, Jernigan, Jernigan, bring me my garters," i. 112.
- Jerrold, Douglas, his 'Beau Nash,' comedy, iv. 114. *See also under* Windows.
- Jervas, C., painter, and friend of Pope, iv. 161, 167 ; and Parnell, iv. 166, 177.
- "Jessamy bride," the, ii. 14, 94, 108, v. 411 n. *See also* Horneck, Miss Mary.
- Jests, Nash's, iv. 120.
- Jesuit missionaries in Canada, v. 29 ; travellers, iv. 258.
- Jesuits, the, in Paraguay, iv. 263 ; swarming, ii. 154.
- Jew, a, ii. 49, l. 75 ; Moravia, the, i. 256.

Jewish soldiers, the two, iv. 511.
 Jewel, Bishop, the horse (staff) he gave to Hooker, i. 79.
 Jewels, family, iii. 378; wearing, iii. 242.
 Jews, the, i. 292, 316, iii. 274, iv. 311; under Zedekiah. See 'Captivity;' and Christians, conflict of at Alexandria, ii. 350; and a future state, iv. 394.
 "Jingo, the living," invoked, i. 104. * * "St. Jingo, or Gengo (Gengulphus), sometimes styled 'the Living Jingo,' from the great tenaciousness of vitality exhibited by his several members," &c.—'Ingoldsby Legends.'
 Jockey Club, the, iii. 322 n.
 "Jockey tribe," the, ii. 113.
 Jog-trot authors, i. 156.
 John, King, v. 273; and the barons, v. 277; and the pope, v. 274.
 'Johnny Armstrong's Last Good Night,' ballad, i. 85, i. 431, ii. 334, 366.
 Johnson, writer on Natural History? Johnston, J., *which see*.
 Johnson, Charles, iii. 407.
 Johnson, Mrs. *See* Johnston.
 Johnson, Rev. Mr., v. 395.
 Johnson, Dr. S., i. 23, 27, 37, ii. 48, l. 49, i. 459, ii. 392, iv. 405, 479; his account of Barreter, v. 205 n.; 'Bravery of Common Soldiers,' essay attributed to him, iii. 449 n., 457 n.; as a critic, i. 53; his 'Dictionary,' ii. 392, iv. 417 n.; 'Edwin and Angelina,' attributed to him, v. 175 n.; his Jacobite principles, i. 46; Goldsmith's dedication of 'She Stoops to Conquer,' to him, ii. 216; Goldsmith's retorts upon, i. 45; his 'Idler,' iii. 458 n.; his connection with the *Literary Magazine*, iv. 513 n.; his 'Lives of the Poets,' and the omission of Goldsmith there, i. 58 n., 64 n., iii. 508 n., iv. 156 n., 178 n.; his Parlia-

mentary reports, iv. 435 n.; his poems iii. 153, iv. 417 n., v. 155; the 'Poetical Scale,' attributed to him, iv. 513 n.; his Prefaces, v. 2 n.; his Prologue to the "Good-Natured Man," ii. 147; his style and Goldsmith's, i. 52; his 'Rambler,' ii. 193 n., 392, iv. 417 n.; his 'Rasselas,' ii. 392 n., iii. 139 n.; his epitaph absent from 'Retaliation,' ii. 52 n.; things erroneously attributed to him, ii. 141 n.; at the Thrales', i. 461; his corrections, &c., of the 'Traveller,' and 'Deserted Village,' i. 27, ii. 18, l. 420, &c., ii. 45, 141 n., iii. 449 n.; sells the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' for Goldsmith, i. 20; his 'Works,' iii. 458 n.; Croker on Boswell's view of, i. 52; Goldsmith on, iv. 248; Horace Walpole on, i. 63 n.; on Bolingbroke and Mallet, his editor, perhaps an error by Boswell, iv. 223, 226 n.; on the clergy, English and Scotch, i. 273 n.; on dictionary making, iv. 312; on conversational powers, i. 46; on explorations in the East, &c., iii. 391 n.; on Goldsmith, i. 22, 26, 33, 36, 50, 58, 235, ii. 145, iv. 156 n., 178 n.; on Goldsmith's fitness as a traveller, iii. 391 n.; his epitaph, &c., on Goldsmith, i. 41; his account of Goldsmith's death, i. 39; on Mrs. Lennox, ii. 92 n.; on London streets, iii. 43 n.; on luxury, *ib.*; on Methodists, i., 273 n.; on Milton, iv. 421 n., 513 n.; on Pope, iv. 110 n.; on the 'Provoked Husband,' ii. 145 n.; on Swift's Proposal for an English Grammar, ii. 450 n.; on Thrall's brewhouse, iv. 413 n.; on Vauxhall, iii. 268 n.; and the Cock Lane Ghost, ii. 474 n.; and Lauder's Milton fraud, ii. 55 n., iv. 513 n.; and Goldsmith, i. 456, ii. 214 n., 392, 455 n., iv. 155, 417,

- 514 n.; and Grub-street, iii. 507 n.; and Francis Wise, iv. 304 n., 307 n.
- "Johnsonian school," the, Goldsmith as of it, i. 52.
- Johnston, John, naturalist, v. 70, 186.
- Johnston, Mrs. (Jenny Goldsmith), i. 450, 455-7.
- Joiners' Company, the, ii. 239.
- Jokes, advertising, iii. 193.
- Jonathan's Coffee-house, ii. 353 n.
- Jones, Sir Charles, v. 394.
- Jones, Giles, i. 19 n., v. 350, 353 n.; and 'Goody Two-Shoes,' v. 377 n.
- Jones, Griffith, i. 19 n., iii. 1 n., iv. 153 n.
- Jones, Lady = Goody Two-Shoes, v. 395.
- Jones, Mr., v. 368, 377.
- Jones, Rev. Oliver, of Elphin, Goldsmith's grandfather, i. 2.
- Jones, Sir William, i. 37, iii. 389 n.
- Jones, Winter, i. 19 n.
- Jongleurs and Wises, iv. 334.
- Jonson, Ben, i. 146, ii. 57, l. 124, iv. 367, 417; and Shakspeare, iv. 455.
- Jordan, a, i. 251.
- Jordan, Dr. E., iv. 63.
- Joseph, a green, i. 133. * * Mr. Dobson says this was a travelling coat. Later, an "upper Benjamin" was an overcoat. Perhaps both names came from the Jews, the great dealers in clothing.
- Journal, "a rant" of a [?"special edition"], iv. 134.
- Journalism, English rise of, ii. 445 n.
- Journalists, &c., iv. 436.
- Journeyman, a shopkeeper's, iii. 289.
- Judges, ii. 77, l. 35; of Charles I., v. 312; laws made by, ii. 430; partiality of, i. 282.
- Judgment, iii. 313; in poetry, iv. 418; educating the, v. 256; the last, Massillon on, ii. 423.
- Jumper, the dog, v. 376, 383.
- Junius Letters, Woodfall, the publisher of, ii. 59 n.
- Jupiter, Saturn, Mars, &c., kings upon earth, iv. 307.
- 'Jupiter and Mercury,' Garrick's, i. 52 n., ii. 57 n.
- Jury-men, Old Bailey, i. 304.
- Justice, iii. 144; acts of, i. 178; buying off, iii. 145; and revenge, iii. 301.
- 'Justice and Generosity, On,' 1759, ii. 352.
- (criticism), i. 50, iii. 14.
- Justice of Middlesex, i. 279.
- Justice of Peace, the, iii. 433.
- Justices, country, iii. 36.
- K——, Mr. (in Cock Lane Ghost affair), ii. 457 n., 460, 476 n.
- Kabul, the glutton, story of, iii. 57.
- Kaempfer on Japan, iii. 426; his 'History,' iii. 426 n.
- Kalmucks, the, iii. 155, 196.
- Kalokagatha, the Greeks', ii. 426.
- Kamschatka, iii. 134.
- Kangaroo, the, v. 186 n.
- Karamat-man, the, iii. 398.
- Kashmire, the women of, iii. 413.
- Kauffman, Angelica, ii. 94, l. 13; her portrait of Sir Joshua Reynolds, ii. 95 n.
- Kaul Dereg, ii. 367.
- Kaunteloe, iii. 442 n.
- Keene, Mrs., iv. 326; her 'Ovid,' &c., *ib.*
- "Keep your shop, and your shop will keep you," ii. 432.
- Keil, iv. 357.
- Kelly, fencing-master, and 'She Stoops to Conquer,' i. 4, 60 n.
- Kelly, Hugh, i. 19, ii. 56, l. 115, 57, l. 124, iii. 1 n.; his comedies, ii. 115 n., 219 n.; and Goldsmith, v. 175 n.
- Kendal, Duchess of, and George I., iv. 211 n.
- Kenditch = Kentish. *See* Kentish Town.
- Kennet, his 'History of England,' v. 168 n.

- Kenrick, Dr. Wm., ii. 55, l. 86, 56, l. 115; iii. 50 n., iv. 408; his attack on Goldsmith in the 'Tom Tickle' letter, i. 34; his 'School of Shakespeare' lectures, ii. 55, l. 86; his review of Goldsmith's 'Polite Learning,' iii. 503 n.; Dr. Johnson on, ii. 55 n.
- Kent Street, ii. 81, l. 26, ii. 347.
- Kentish Town, a journey to, iii. 440; and Kent, iii. 442.
- Kew Palace and Gardens, ii. 102, l. 132.
- Khalif Omer, iii. 417 n.
- Kick the straw, to, ii. 214. * See also *Notes and Queries*, 1885.
- Kidderminster, i. 465; curtains, ii. 106.
- Kilcoubry, Lord. See Kirkcudbright, Lord.
- Kill-daylight, Lady, ii. 254.
- Kilmore, i. 438, 440.
- Kimbolton, Lord, v. 321.
- King, the, i. 148, ii. 18, l. 392, iii. 21; of Morocco, Court of the Black, at a fair, i. 308; Solomon in all his glory, at Bartholomew Fair, i. 309; with a golden head, iii. 51; mourning for, and hailing his successor, iii. 353; power of, v. 169; is sacred, i. 169; a tyrant king preferable to tyrant laws, iii. 298.
- "King, our, and principles," dying for. See also *Kings, Monarchy, &c.*, v. 325.
- and the beggar, &c., which is happiest? iv. 506; (Charles I.) and the Commons, v. 311, 316; justice and mercy, iii. 144.
- "King, the little, of a little kingdom," iv. 52.
- King, the actor, ii. 294, 396.
- King, Dr., iv. 136, 139, 154 n.; his Epitaph on Beau Nash, iv. 136, 139.
- 'King Lear,' i. 339, 358, 360.
- "King of Bath" (Beau Nash), iv. 150.
- Kings, iii. 184; adulation of, iii. 436; ambition of, iii. 38; deposed, v. 339; English, their many titles, iii. 434; the vulgar herd of, v. 257; and beggars: see *Beggar, a, by night, &c.*; and cobblers, iii. 355; and courts, ii. 17, l. 362; the English and their, ii. 411; and laws, ii. 18, l. 427; English, and their officers, iii. 451.
- King's mistress, a, i. 284. See also *King, Monarchy, &c.*
- King's Bench Walk, Temple, Goldsmith in. See *Temple*.
- Kingsbury, Goldsmith at, i. 464 n.
- Kingsley's 'Hypatia,' ii. 352 n.
- Kip, tattering a. See *Tattering*.
- Kippis, Dr., iv. 408 n.
- Kirkcudbright, Lord, i. 422.
- Kite-flying in Madagascar, iii. 322.
- Kitten, the, ii. 25.
- "Kitty," Duchess of Queensberry, iv. 69.
- Kitty, little, ii. 48, l. 54.
- Klein, naturalist, v. 70, 186.
- Klopstock, iii. 490.
- Klopstock, Count, "the great leaper," iv. 122.
- Knavery and simplicity, iv. 115.
- Knaves and fools, v. 17.
- Kneller, i. 390.
- Knight, a, from the country, iii. 378.
- Knight, Charles, his edition of 'Citizen of the World,' iii. 312.
- Knighthood, iii. 454; fees of, iii. 454; female orders of, iii. 237, 398; orders of, iii. 398.
- Knights, their decorations, &c., iii. 241; tradesmen as, iii. 398; women as, iii. 398; the poor, of Windsor, iv. 58.
- Knitting stockings, men, in France, iii. 294.
- Kniveton, Mrs., actress, ii. 217.
- Knockrue, Lissoy, ii. 140 n.
- Knowing fellows are the silliest, i. 195.
- Knowledge, useful, iii. 390, iv. 54; useless, v. 132; which repels,

- iii. 498; acquisition of, iii. 35; aiming at too much, iv. 221; the pleasures of, iii. 29; pretenders to, iii. 376; and age sour the disposition, ii. 334; and happiness, iii. 178; *v.* prudence, iv. 6.
- Known, to be, iv. 58.
- Kobi, iii. 42, 52.
- Koenig, Professor, and Voltaire, ii. 322 n.
- Kölin, battle of, v. 51.
- Korea, iii. 66.
- Koreki, iii. 20, 123.
- Kunokephaloi, the, iii. 60.
- L., J. A., ii. 464.
- L——, Miss, Col. M——, and Beau Nash, iv. 89.
- L——, Miss E—— (Cock Lane Ghost story), ii. 461.
- L——, Miss F—— (“Fanny,” the supposed Cock Lane Ghost), ii. 461, &c.
- Laberius, Decimus, iii. 538; his ‘Prologue,’ i. 347, ii. 75, iii. 539.
- Labour, ii. 8, l. 82, iv. 246; rising by, iii. 368.
- Ladbroke, Sir R., iii. 405 n.
- Ladies, the, v. 64; English, iii. 173-4; fashionable, i. 173, iii. 200; address to, on silence, iv. 471; advised to marry, iii. 328; and highwaymen, iv. 374; their trains ridiculed, iii. 302; young, and their lovers, iv. 92; young, poems for, v. 150.
- ‘Ladies, A True History for the,’ 1760, iv. 483.
- Ladies’ Club, the, ii. 260.
- ‘Ladies’ Memorandum Book,’ the, ii. 246. *See also* Lady, Women, &c.
- ‘Ladle, The,’ Prior’s, i. 30, v. 159.
- Lady, a, of distinction, iii. 53, 125, 148; the fine, iii. 18; writers, iv. 386.
- ‘Lady B., Memoirs of,’ a lost work of Goldsmith, i. 443 n.
- Lady’s man, a. *See* Women’s man.
- Lady’s Magazine, The*, i. 113, 270 n., 299, ii. 302 n., iv. 28 n.; Goldsmith’s contributions to it, i. 19, iv. 2 n, 501, 514 n.
- La Fayette, Mdme. de, iv. 300.
- La Fontaine, i. 30 n., 46, iv. 370 n.; quoted, iii. 369.
- La Galisse. *See* Galisse.
- La Hogue, battle of, v. 338.
- Lama (priest-god), making a, iii. 280.
- Lambertius, iii. 478.
- Lambswool, i. 111. * * * An apple and ale beverage, a recipe for which is given in Nares’ ‘Glossary.’ *See also* Gent. Mag. Lib. ‘Customs,’ p. 180, and *Notes and Queries*, 1885.
- Lancaster, House of, iv. 442.
- “Land, Ill fares the,” &c., ii. 34, l. 51; when every rood “maintain’d its man,” ii. 34, l. 58.
- Landlady, a (tavern), i. 402, 404 n.
- Landlords (Inn), i. 80, 170, 277, ii. 82.
- Langhorne, J. and W., iv. 338, 408 n.
- Langhorne’s ‘Death of Adonis’ (criticism), 1759, iv. 338.
- Langhorns, Mrs., ii. 260.
- Langton, Bennet, i. 23; Goldsmith’s Letter to, i. 461; proposed visit to by Goldsmith, *ib.*
- Langton, Stephen, v. 274.
- ‘Language, On the use of,’ ii. 343.
- origin of, iv. 313; rise of, ii. 443; that universal in “the post-diluvian world was” the Celtic, iv. 307.
- ‘Language, The History of Our Own,’ 1758, iv. 437.
- (notes, &c.), i. 359, ii. 443, 456, iv. 452, v. 309.
- (cross reference to), v. 309.
- Languages, Bayly’s ‘Introduction to,’ iv. 310, 312; Goldsmith’s knowledge of, i. 13; the learned, teaching, ii. 408.
- Lansdown, Lord, and Bolingbroke, iv. 194; and Pope, iv. 422.

- Lansdowne, Marquis of. *See* Shelburne, Lord.
- Lanterns, Feast of, Chinese, iii. 87.
- Lao, iii. 67; doctrines of, iii. 69 n.
- Lao, the rise and decline of the kingdom of, iii. 91.
- Lao, the looking-glass of, iii. 173, 174.
- Lao Kium. *See* Laou-keun.
- Laou-keun, iii. 159.
- Laou-tsze. *See* Tao-sse.
- Lapland, iii. 414.
- Lappet-head, a, iv. 23.
- Lapwing, the, ii. l. 45, 34.
- Lark, the, v. 232; captive and free, v. 234.
- Latimer, iv. 446.
- Latin, i. 361, 385; or English for epitaphs, Dr. Johnson and others on, i. 40 n.; verse, i. 382-85.
- Laud, Archbishop, v. 314; his trial and execution, v. 326.
- Lauder, William, ii. 55, l. 89; his attack upon Milton, and imposition upon Dr. Johnson, ii. 55 n.; Dr. Douglas's exposure of him, ii. 55 n.
- "Laugh, the loud," &c., ii. 37, l. 122, iv. 250.
- Laugh with a crooked nose, to, ii. 107.
- Laughing, i. 261; laughing comedy, i. 398.
- Laughter, ii. 436; of the world, iii. 207; decline of, iii. 516; Hobbes on, ii. 436; and pride, *ib.*; and wit, i. 234.
- Laur, river, iii. 83.
- Lawder, James, Goldsmith's cousin, i. 419, 447, 455-6.
- Lawder, Mrs. Jane, Goldsmith's cousin, i. 419, 425; Goldsmith's letter to her, i. 438; Goldsmith's valentine to her, i. 438 n.; her narrative, v. 406.
- Law, iii. 154; expensive, v. 354; going to, iii. 360; going to, in Holland, ii. 384; suits, lengthy, iii. 360; and custom, ii. 428; and wealth, the bonds of, ii. 16, l. 351.
- Law Courts, the erroneous arguing in, v. 318; in Westminster Hall, iii. 359.
- Laws, iii. 272; King Alfred's, v. 271; English, iii. 21, 36, 448; in abeyance, iii. 189; in Holland, ii. 384; judge-made, ii. 430; in restraint of marriage, iii. 411; penal, English and Chinese, iii. 298, v. 272; religious and political, v. 205; of savages, i. 198; contradictions of, ii. 413; inefficacy of our, iv. 103; multiplicity of, i. 282, ii. 18, l. 386, iii. 190, 361, v. 355; against many and severe, ii. 430, iii. 298, 475, v. 310; should reward as well as punish, i. 191, 197; and kings, ii. 18, l. 427; and the people, iii. 188; and philosophy, iii. 488, 497; and the poor, iii. 429; and property, iii. 306.
- Lawson, Dr. J., iv. 404; Dunkin on, iv. 404.
- 'League. The,' Voltaire's. *See* 'The Henriade,' iv. 33.
- Learned, the, i. 157, ii. 387; disputes among, iii. 406; duty of the, iii. 74; those who pretend to be, iii. 375, v. 256; remote and useless disquisitions by, iii. 332; societies (some), iii. 333, 346; societies in France, iii. 506; and the dunces, ii. 394.
- Learning, acquisition of, i. 324; ancient and modern, iii. 529; cause of its decline, iii. 467; history of, ii. 443; in the obscure ages, iii. 476; ostentatious, v. 189; in poetry, iv. 418: the pride of, iv. 451; the quackery of, v. 132; rise of, iii. 468; and amusement, v. 198; and freedom, iii. 469; and genius, iv. 366; *versus* good sense, ii. 447; and misery, iii. 32; and morality, iii. 467; and truth, iv. 239, 247. *See also* Polite Learning, &c.

- Leathersides, Mr., i. 255.
 Le Comte, Louis, iii. 2, 9, 211.
 Lee, Mr. (? actor), ii. 97.
 Lee, N., dramatist, ii. 446, iv. 418; and Otway, i. 330.
 Lee, Vernon, on Academies in Italy. *See under Italy, academies.*
 Leech, Colonel, iii. 183.
 Le Fèvre, Voltaire's Letter to, iii. 504.
 Le Franc, iii. 495.
 Legacy-hunter, the, iii. 367.
 Legal opinions, iii. 360.
 Legendary history, v. 264.
 Legislation, iii. 188.
 Leibnitz, iv. 44.
 Leicester, R. Dudley, Earl of, iii. 454, v. 304; and Queen Elizabeth, v. 306.
 Leigh, G., bookseller, &c., v. 166 n.
 Leigh and Sotheby, book auctioneers, v. 166 n.
 Lennox, Mrs. Charlotte, ii. 92, iv. 275 n.; her 'Sister,' epilogue to, ii. 92.
 Leo, the philosopher, iii. 477.
 Leo X., Pope, his time, ii. 444.
 Leonard's 'Raimond et Angelina,' a translation of Goldsmith's 'Edwin and Angelina,' ii. 30 n.
 Leontine, ii. 157.
 Lerma, Duke of, iii. 26.
 Lesly, ii. 450.
 'Lessons for the Conduct of Life,' Goody Two-Shoes', v. 364.
 L'Estrange, Sir Roger, ii. 445.
 "Let schoolmasters puzzle their brains" (song), ii. 226.
 'Letter, A, from Mr. * * * in Tunbridge,' &c., iv. 142.
 'Letter from a Traveller,' ii. 319.
 Letter, an incendiary's, iii. 386.
 'Letter in Prose and Verse to Mrs. Bunbury,' 1772-4 (?), ii. 106. *See also Appendix II., vol. v.*
 Letter from Voltaire to Tiriot, ii. 340.
 Letter writing, Goldsmith's reluctance at, i. 420, 426, 447, 450.
 'Letters,' Goldsmith's, i., 409-487.
 — lost, i. 419, 429, 438, 447, 457, 459.
 — (notes on the Letters), i. 410, 413, 417, 423, 431, 432, 435, 442, 444, 452, 455, 457, 458, 461.
 — (criticism of), i. 410, 417, 450.
 — (cross-references to), ii. 96, 97, iii. 238, 251, 312, 462, 507, iv. 2, 3, 48, 303, 336, 384, 510, v. 119, 127, 129, 143, 162, 176, 182.
 Letters, the commonwealth of, iv. 356. *See also Republic of Letters, &c.; renewal (sic) of in Europe, ii. 397.*
 'Letters from an Armenian in Ireland' (criticism), 1757, iv. 285.
 'Letters from a Citizen of the World,' &c. *See 'Citizen of the World,' &c.*
 Letters of good fortune, the eight, iii. 151.
 Leuwenhock, A., v. 92.
 Le Vayer. *See Mothe-le-Vayer.*
 Levellers, those called, i. 149.
 Lewes, "Tom" Paine at, v. 178 n.
 Lewes, Charles Lee, actor, ii. 115, 215, 217; his entertainment, ii. 217 n.; his 'Memoirs' ii. 217 n.; and Goldsmith, ii. 217 n.
 Leyden, i. 11 n.; Goldsmith's letter from, i. 426; the University, i. 424, 429, iii. 501, 523.
 Liberal arts, the, i. 341.
 Liberality, i. 269, iii. 246.
 Liberty, i. 148, 167, iii. 21, v. 6; English, iii. 187, 448, 451, iv. 465, v. 16, 260, 278, 283, 354; in Germany, v. 42; and the people, the cry, i. 462; pretended champions of, i. 152; and commerce, v. 310; and Englishmen, ii. 321; Goldsmith and, v. 176 n.; and old England! iii. 431, 433; and the poor, i. 261; and property, iii.

- 449, v. 18, 263; and religion, the poet Butler's defence of, iv. 369; and subordination, iv. 24; and tyranny, i. 149-50.
- Liberty, Miss Brent's song on, iv. 482.
- 'Liberty,' Thomson's poem, i. 332.
- "Liberty and Fleet Street!" ii. 266.
- Liberty-hall, ii. 236.
- Library, Goldsmith's, and its sale, v. 126 n.
- Lien Chi Altangi (the 'Citizen of the World'), iii. 14.
- Life, iii. 276, v. 238; "between the fireside and the easy chair," iii. 281; high and low, i. 399, 402 n.; to the old, iii. 276; a straggling, charms of, i. 295; in a tavern, i. 280, 287; to the young, iii. 278; the accidents of, i. 223; the arts of, v. 403; some cautions on, iii. 310; the conduct of, v. 364; duties of, v. 151; endeared by age, iii. 276; enduring, i. 175; the enjoyment of, iv. 496; entering upon, iii. 229; is "a froward child," &c., ii. 155, iii. 526, v. 259; inconveniences of, iii. 251; is a journey, iii. 352; the load of, ii. 147; miseries of, iii. 83; this miserable, ii. 155; a pageant, iii. 439; the pleasures of, i. 87; resignation to its ills, i. 275; the revolutions of, iii. 313; rubbing through, iv. 486; "seeing," ii. 336; and happiness, i. 395; here and hereafter, i. 208; and honour, ii. 76; and Nature, drawing from the one and the other, iv. 427.
- Life's race, in, the most swift are the least manageable, iii. 230.
- Lightning, rosin'd, ii. 116, l. 18; on a youth struck blind by, ii. 79, 308; lovers struck by, *see* under Gay.
- Lilliputian Magazine, The*, v. 353, 356, 371, 375, 388, 411 n.
- 'Lilliputian Masquerade,' the, v. 356 n.
- Lilliputian Society, the, v. 375, 388 n.
- Lilliputian System of Politics, the, v. 405.
- Lilly (astrologer), iv. 370 n.
- Lilly, or Lyly, John (?), his plays, iv. 461. * * John Lyly "the Euphuist," 1553-1600, seems to be meant. *See* Goldsmith on the "Euphuists" elsewhere.
- Lily's Grammar, i. 261, ii. 409.
- Lindsay's Room, Bath, iv. 84 n., 94.
- Linen (shirts, &c.), lack of in France, iii. 293.
- Linguet, his 'Theory of Civil Law,' iii. 494 n.
- Linnet, v. 232.
- Linnaeus, v. 70, 72, 186, 120 n., 121.
- Lintot and Parnell, iv. 162 n.
- Lion, the, v. 78, 82, 215; a long-lived animal, v. 216.
- Lioness, the, v. 89.
- Lions in America, iv. 260, 262; in Fez, iii. 340; Goldsmith corrects Buffon as to their age, v. 216; in the Tower menagerie, v. 216.
- Liquor, good, ii. 226.
- Lisbon, an auto da fe at, iii. 27 n.; the earthquake at, ii. 156, 193, v. 25.
- Lisburn, Earl of, and Goldsmith, i. 28.
- Lishoy. *See* Lissoy.
- Lissoy, i. 59 n., 431, ii. 35 n., 40 n.; Goldsmith at, v. 236 n.; relics of Goldsmith there, ii. 33 n., 139, 140 n.; and Auburn, ii. 33 n. *See also* Auburn, the Three Pigeons, &c.
- Literary, a, contest, by epigram, iii. 406; decay in France and England, iii. 510; fame, i. 324; fame difficult to get, iii. 284; productions, fathering, iv. 375; forgeries of antiquity, v. 134; modesty, iv. 378; partizans of

- Lucretius, ii. 360, 411, iv. 266.
 Ludgate to Charing Cross in 1759, iv. 463.
 Luitprandus, iii. 477.
 Luke's iron crown, ii. 18, l. 436.
 Lully and his school of music, i. 352, 386, 387, 388.
 Lumpkin, old Squire, ii. 227.
 Lumpkin, Tony. *See* Tony Lumpkin.
 Lunenburg, iii. 435.
 'Lun-Yu,' by Confucius, iii. 31.
 Lupton, T., his 'Thousand Notable Things,' v. 239 n.
 Lutestring, Mr., the mercer, i. 302.
 Luther, rise of, v. 293; his works, v. 294; and Frederic, Elector of Saxony, v. 294.
 Luxuries, i. 330; popular, iv. 273.
 Luxury, ii. 41, l. 284, 44, l. 385, 377, 379, 386, iii. 43, 91, 93, 313, 423, iv. 350, v. 52, 110, 214, 236; benefits of, iii. 41; ills of, ii. 32, 35, l. 67; old and new, i. 280; second-rate, iv. 57; Voltaire's defence of, iv. 39; of the "middling class," ii. 431; and the sciences, iii. 309; of doing good, ii. 6, l. 22.
 Lying in state, ii. 161, iii. 45.
 Lying-in of the Indian husband, iii. 337.
 Lyly, John. *See* Lilly.
 Lynch, Mr., ii. 344.
 Lysippus, the story of, ii. 352.
 Lyttelton, Lord G., v. 409; Goldsmith's 'Nobleman's Letters' attributed to him, v. 250; and Mrs. Carter, v. 250 n.
 Lyttelton, Mr., and Bolingbroke, iv. 227 n.
- M—— Col., Miss L——, and Beau Nash, iv. 89.
 M—— Duchess of [Marlborough], i. 38.
 Macao = Maccau, iii. 435.
 "Macaroni train," the, ii. 112.
 Macaronies, ii. 114, l. 15, 268.
 'Macbeth,' Macduff's scene in, i. 328, iv. 429, 449.
 Maccau = Macao, iii. 435.
 McDonnell, Dr., ii. 52 n.
 Macduff's wail for his children, i. 329.
 Macfag, Miss, ii. 200.
 "Mac Flecknoe" = Shadwell, v. 157.
 Machiavelli, iv. 388.
 Maclane, Mr., iv. 434.
 M'Laurin, Professor Colin, v. 200 n.; Goldsmith's story about his dislocated jaw, v. 200.
 Maclean, highwayman, iv. 374.
 Macpherson's 'Ossian' and 'Fragments,' i. 353 n., ii. 55, l. 87; his 'Homer,' ii. 55, l. 87.
 Macrobius, his Prologue from Laberius, i. 347, ii. 75, iii. 539.
 Mac Wild, Saunders, i. 258.
 'Mad Dog, an Elegy on the Death of a,' 1760 (?), ii. 89.
 Mad dog stories, iii. 260.
 Mad dogs scare, ii. 194. *See also* Dog, mad.
 Madness and music, v. 206.
 Madre Dolorosa, the, v. 137 n.
 'Mad Tom,' song, i. 251.
 Maevius, iv. 382 n.
 Maffei, F. S., iii. 480, iv. 422 n., 479.
 Magazine in miniature, specimen of a, i. 259.
 Magazine writing, ii. 304, 305, 365, iii. 110, 509, 511, 514.
 Magazines, i. 148, 315 n., 389; pirating, i. 245; by "a society of gentlemen," i. 260.
 Magdalen Hospital, the, iv. 269 n.
 Magi, the, iii. 83.
 Magians, the, iii. 57 n.
 Magic, Roger Bacon accused of, v. 146.
 Magicians and witches, i. 282.
 Magistrates, iii. 36; and the laws, iii. 300.
 Magna Charta, v. 277; Cromwell on, i. 312.
 Magnanimity, iii. 428; true, iii. 82.
 Magnetism, discovery of, v. 149.
 Mahmout = Mammoth, *which see*.

- Mahomet, iii. 401, iv. 381; his Paradise, and women, iii. 267, 363.
- Mahometans, iii. 417 n.
- Maid, dressy old, ii. 326; an old, iii. 329.
- Maids, old, iii. 106; neglected, iii. 412, 420.
- Mainwaring, ii. 450.
- Maintenon, Madame de, H. Walpole on, iv. 276 n.
- ‘Maintenon, Madame de, Memoirs’ (criticism), 1757, iv. 275.
- (cross-reference to), iii. 479.
- Maiolo, Simon, iii. 60, 61.
- Majors (wigs), iv. 87.
- Maladie du poche, and the English, iii. 522.
- Malagrida, Father, burning of, iii. 27 n.; Goldsmith’s “blunder” in reference to him, i. 39 n.
- Malice, ii. 78, l. 45.
- Mall, the, St. James’s Park, ii. 324, 347.
- Mallet, David, his edition of Bolingbroke, iv. 223, 226 n.; his lives of Bacon and Marlborough, *ib.*; Johnson’s attack on, iv. 223 n.
- Mallet, T. J., iv. 238.
- ‘Mallet’s Mythology of the Celtes’ (criticism), 1757, iv. 233.
- Malloch, David = David Mallet, iv. 224 n.
- Malone, E., and the ‘Life’ of Goldsmith, i. 64 n.; his collection of Goldsmith’s letters, i. 442 n.
- Mammoth, the, v. 79, 93.
- Man, frail, i. 301; a good, and a bad, v. 66; the just, i. 354; savage, v. 77, 134, 198; ungrateful, i. 263; a fretful being, i. 275; the dignity of, ii. 332; a man’s life no history, iv. 54; never past amendment, i. 193; the school of, iii. 249; is a ship, and the world a sea, iii. 313; stature and beauty of, ancient and modern, v. 209; his relations with animals, &c., v. 217; and the brutes, ii. 76, 77, l. 3, iii. 56, 469; and the cat, iii. 56; and the Deity, v. 195; and Nature, iii. 39; and reason, v. 198; the man of the world, and the scholar, iii. 499.
- ‘Man, Allegory on,’ Parnell’s (Johnson on), iv. 176.
- ‘Man in Black, the,’ i. 3, iii. 48, 70, 77, 106, 109, 121, 204, 216, 266, 375 n., 443; his character, iii. 95; his history, iii. 99; and the beggars, iii. 96, 97; his fit of hypochondriasis, iii. 337; his law-suits, iii. 359; his niece, iii. 365; his courting, iii. 444; his quarrel with the pawnbroker’s widow, iii. 445; on love, &c., iii. 419; on ladies’ trains, iii. 303. *See also* Goldsmith, Charles and Henry.
- Man in the bottle, the. *See* ‘Bottle Bubble.’
- ‘Man in the Moon, Advice from the,’ v. 383.
- “Man wants but little here below,” &c., ii. 24, iii. 252.
- Manacabo, the king of, iii. 435.
- Managers (stage) and authors, iii. 539 n. *See also* Stage, &c.
- Mandarin, the, and the old sly bonze, iii. 242.
- Mandarins, the twelve, and the Emperor Tis-iang, iii. 158.
- Man-Fish, the, story of, iii. 329.
- Mangin, his ‘Essays on Light Reading,’ ii. 138 n.
- ‘Man-hater, Asem the.’ *See* ‘Asem, an Eastern Tale.’
- Man-haters, &c., iii. 253, 494.
- Mankind, blindness of, iii. 84; the good of, ii. 7, ll. 44, 54; the volume of, and the volumes of antiquity, iii. 523.
- Manliness of grief, ii. 44, l. 384.
- Manners, ii. 13, l. 239; narrow, v. 328; old, ii. 220.
- Manton, Dr., iv. 182.
- Mantrap, Mrs., ii. 260.
- Manuscripts, Goldsmith’s, i. 410 n., ii. 61, 106, 114, 117. *See also*

- quacks, iii. 256; pretenders, iv. 331, 356, 406; titles and distinctions, iii. 377: reputation, riches and, iii. 214; reviews, &c., of England and France, iii. 511; societies, &c., iii. 73, 74, 376; success, ii. 362; thefts, iv. 278.
- Literary Club, the. *See* The Club, i. 23.
- Literary Magazine, The*, ii. 431 n., iii. 450 n., 458 n., 459 n., iv. 274, 437, 452 n.; Goldsmith's contributions to, i. 359, 408, ii. 443, 456, iv. 410, 416, 452, 513, v. 7, 59; and Dr. Johnson, ii. 456, iv. 513.
- Literature, temp. Eliz., v. 308; English, history of. *See* 'Language, Hist. of Our Own,' &c.; in the reign of Geo. I., v. 343; low-lived, i. 113; polite, 341; the Anarchy of, iii. 74; decline of, iii. 237, 465; encouragement of, v. 346; State encouragement for, iii. 284; projectors in, ii. 376; as a pursuit, ii. 451; subjects of exhausted, iii. 356. (*See also* Wit, the harvest gathered); rivalry in, iii. 465. *See also* Author, Literary, 'Polite Learning,' &c.
- Little beings (*i.e.*, the ignorant), i. 196; 'Little Pretty Play Thing, The,' v. 362.
- Little things, ii. 7, l. 42; Goldsmith will not ask for little things, i. 456; little things, who advertise themselves, iv. 58.
- Littleton, Gen. Napier's mansion, near Ballymahon, ii. 139 n.
- Liturgy, the, of the Reformers, iv. 448; the translation of James I., iv. 452.
- "Live, we all must," iii. 51.
- 'Lives of Eminent Persons,' Goldsmith's projected, i. 479.
- Living by chance, v. 203.
- Livonia, iii. 234.
- Livy, i. 334, v. 257, 258.
- Lloyd, or Loyd, Miss and Goldsmith, ii. 260 n.
- Lloyd, R., iii. 406 n., 409, iv. 127 n.
- Loans, national, i. 316 n.
- Lobster, or crab? iii. 426.
- Lobsters and crabs, v. 109.
- Locke, John, ii. 447, iii. 162, iv. 24, 268, v. 343; on education, ii. 404; his *Metaphysics*, ii. 321.
- Lockman, John, iii. 385, 397.
- Locman, iii. 308 n.; a fable of, iii. 308.
- Locusts, descent of the, iii. 327.
- Lofty, Mr., ii. 166.
- Logic, v. 255; "the cold," of *Burgersdicius*, iv. 158.
- 'Logicians Refuted, The,' 1759, ii. 76.
- (note), i. 56.
- (cross reference), iii. 503.
- Loire, the, ii. 13, l. 245.
- Loke, iv. 237.
- "Lollai, Lollai, littel childe," i. 463.
- London, iii. 9, 17, 254, 374; temp. 1700, iv. 62; beer-drinking in, iv. 413 n.; bird-catching, round, v. 229; its opposition to Charles I., v. 315, 320; its Common Council, iii. 260 n.; company in, i. 249; Goldsmith's "country lodgings" round, v. 182 n.; deaths from want in, v. 204; an election for, iii. 405 n.; the great fire of, v. 333; from Greenwich Hill (?), i. 431; hospitality of, iii. 199 n.; lodgings in, iii. 34; the mart for abilities, i. 156; the great plague of, v. 195; shops and shopkeepers, ii. 431, iii. 43 n., 289; streets, iii. 14, 33; cellars, tea-drinking in (*Hanway's* account), iv. 272; trips to, ii. 220; women of, and the Rebellion, v. 326; and Brentford, between, iii. 323; and the fashions, ii. 246; and freedom, v. 278. *See also* City, Corporation, &c., and localities, as Fleet Street, &c.

- London Gazette*, origin of, ii. 445 n.
London Packet, the, ii. 56 n.; its attack upon Goldsmith, and Goldsmith's encounter with its publisher, i. 34.
 Londonderry, siege of. *See* Derry.
 Londoners, ii. 228.
 Longinus, i. 376, iii. 153; on Homer's 'Odyssey,' i. 378; on the Sublime, i. 335.
 Longueville, W., iv. 368 n.; and Samuel Butler, iv. 368 n.
 Loo, William III. at, v. 342.
 Loo, playing at, ii. 107.
 Looking-glass, practice of acting before, ii. 340.
 'Looking-glass of Lao,' the, a dream, iii. 174.
 'Lord, the, my pasture' (from the *Spectator*), v. 372.
 Lord Mayor, the, ii. 415.
 Lord Mayor's feast, a dream of a, i. 309.
 Lords, English, iii. 36; writings of, admiration for the, iii. 346; worship of, in England, iii. 122; and princes, ii. 34, l. 53.
 Lost things, ii. 114, l. 2.
 Lost works, Goldsmith's, i. 17, 238, 459, 478, 483, ii. 58, 260 n., v. 7, 17, 66. *See also under* Works, Scarron, &c.
 Lottèry, manager, a (Henriques), iii. 397.
 Loud, as, as a hog in a gate, ii. 249.
 Louis XIV., ii. 411 n., v. 5; the age of, ii. 444, iii. 492, 494, 496, 531; iv. 464; and the Pretender, iv. 200; and William III., v. 342.
 'Louis XIV.,' Voltaire's, iv. 277, 281.
 Louis XV., iii. 28, 146, iv. 36, 40, 464.
 "Louis the Small," iv. 464.
 Loup Fenris, iv. 237.
 Loure (dance), ii. 298.
 Louth, Lord, i. 39.
 Louvain University, i. 11 n., iii. 523; Greek there, i. 163-4.
 Love, ii. 26; disappointed, a cure for, iii. 351; the business of, iv. 87; dying for, iii. 422; indifference a provocative to, iv. 87; for love, ii. 418; making, ii. 278; moderately, iii. 65; the offences of those we, i. 175; the power of true, iv. 502, 504; whether a natural or a fictitious passion, iii. 419; and friendship, ii. 85, l. 32, 157, 314, iv. 242, 483; and gratitude, iii. 246; and interest, ii. 418; and jealousy, iii. 412; and lust, iii. 412; and marriage, iii. 65, iv. 483; and money, ii. 346, iii. 412, 415; and piety, in Italy, ii. 11, l. 151; and the poor man, iii. 102; and poverty, iii. 412.
 'Love, The Genius of,' iii. 412.
 'Love, The Whole Art of,' iii. 192.
 "Loved (He) all the world, and fancied all the world loved him," iii. 100.
 "Love's a fever" (song), iv. 505.
 Lover, a reserved, ii. 223, the, temp. George II., iv. 87.
 Lovers, an abundance of, iv. 92; designing, iii. 225; a "reverend couple" of, iii. 445; struck by lightning, *see* Gay quoted. *See also* Gallantry, &c.
 Lovewell, Lady Lucy, v. 378.
 'Lovewell, Mr., The History of,' v. 378.
 Low, discourses, ii. 380; low-lived popular literature, i. 113; "low" tastes. *See also* Taste.
 "Low, give us nothing that's," ii. 227.
 "Low" writing, ii. 305, iii. 514.
 Lowe (singer), iii. 294 n.
 Lowe, Mr., i. 252.
 Loyalty, temp. George II. and III., i. 305.
 Lucan, i. 380, iii. 60 n., 153, iv. 244.
 Lucca, ii. 411, iii. 26.
 Lucian, iv. 369.
 Lucky, a weasel-skin purse, i. 117.
 Lucretia and Orlandino, story of, ii. 418.

- Lucretius, ii. 360, 411, iv. 266.
 Ludgate to Charing Cross in 1759, iv. 463.
 Luitprandus, iii. 477.
 Luke's iron crown, ii. 18, l. 436.
 Lully and his school of music, i. 352, 386, 387, 388.
 Lumpkin, old Squire, ii. 227.
 Lumpkin, Tony. *See* Tony Lumpkin.
 Lunenburg, iii. 435.
 'Lun-Yu,' by Confucius, iii. 31.
 Lupton, T., his 'Thousand Notable Things,' v. 239 n.
 Lutestring, Mr., the mercer, i. 302.
 Luther, rise of, v. 293; his works, v. 294; and Frederic, Elector of Saxony, v. 294.
 Luxuries, i. 330; popular, iv. 273.
 Luxury, ii. 41, l. 284, 44, l. 385, 377, 379, 386, iii. 43, 91, 93, 313, 423, iv. 350, v. 52, 110, 214, 236; benefits of, iii. 41; ills of, ii. 32, 35, l. 67; old and new, i. 280; second-rate, iv. 57; Voltaire's defence of, iv. 39; of the "middling class," ii. 431; and the sciences, iii. 309; of doing good, ii. 6, l. 22.
 Lying in state, ii. 161, iii. 45.
 Lying-in of the Indian husband, iii. 337.
 Lyly, John. *See* Lilly.
 Lynch, Mr., ii. 344.
 Lysippus, the story of, ii. 352.
 Lyttelton, Lord G., v. 409; Goldsmith's 'Nobleman's Letters' attributed to him, v. 250; and Mrs. Carter, v. 250 n.
 Lyttelton, Mr., and Bolingbroke, iv. 227 n.
- M—— Col., Miss L——, and Beau Nash, iv. 89.
 M—— Duchess of [Marlborough], i. 38.
 Macao = Maccau, iii. 435.
 "Macaroni train," the, ii. 112.
 Macaronies, ii. 114, l. 15, 268.
 'Macbeth,' Macduff's scene in, i. 328, iv. 429, 449.
 Maccau = Macao, iii. 435.
 McDonnell, Dr., ii. 52 n.
 Macduff's wail for his children, i. 329.
 Macfag, Miss, ii. 200.
 "Mac Flecknoe" = Shadwell, v. 157.
 Machiavelli, iv. 388.
 Maclane, Mr., iv. 434.
 M'Laurin, Professor Colin, v. 200 n.; Goldsmith's story about his dislocated jaw, v. 200.
 Maclean, highwayman, iv. 374.
 Macpherson's 'Ossian' and 'Fragments,' i. 353 n., ii. 55, l. 87; his 'Homer,' ii. 55, l. 87.
 Macrobius, his Prologue from Laberius, i. 347, ii. 75, iii. 539.
 Mac Wild, Saunders, i. 258.
 'Mad Dog, an Elegy on the Death of a,' 1760 (?), ii. 89.
 Mad dog stories, iii. 260.
 Mad dogs scare, ii. 194. *See also* Dog, mad.
 Madness and music, v. 206.
 Madre Dolorosa, the, v. 137 n.
 'Mad Tom,' song, i. 251.
 Maevius, iv. 382 n.
 Maffei, F. S., iii. 480, iv. 422 n., 479.
 Magazine in miniature, specimen of a, i. 259.
 Magazine writing, ii. 304, 305, 365, iii. 110, 509, 511, 514.
 Magazines, i. 148, 315 n., 389; pirating, i. 245; by "a society of gentlemen," i. 260.
 Magdalen Hospital, the, iv. 269 n.
 Magi, the, iii. 83.
 Magians, the, iii. 57 n.
 Magic, Roger Bacon accused of, v. 146.
 Magicians and witches, i. 282.
 Magistrates, iii. 36; and the laws, iii. 300.
 Magna Charta, v. 277; Cromwell on, i. 312.
 Magnanimity, iii. 428; true, iii. 82.
 Magnetism, discovery of, v. 149.
 Mahmout = Mammoth, *which see*.

- Mahomet, iii. 401, iv. 381; his Paradise, and women, iii. 267, 363.
- Mahometans, iii. 417 n.
- Maid, dressy old, ii. 326; an old, iii. 329.
- Maids, old, iii. 106; neglected, iii. 412, 420.
- Mainwaring, ii. 450.
- Maintenon, Madame de, H. Walpole on, iv. 276 n.
- ‘Maintenon, Madame de, Memoirs’ (criticism), 1757, iv. 275. — (cross-reference to), iii. 479.
- Maiolo, Simon, iii. 60, 61.
- Majors (wigs), iv. 87.
- Maladie du poche, and the English, iii. 522.
- Malagrida, Father, burning of, iii. 27 n.; Goldsmith’s “blunder” in reference to him, i. 39 n.
- Malice, ii. 78, l. 45.
- Mall, the, St. James’s Park, ii. 324, 347.
- Mallet, David, his edition of Bolingbroke, iv. 223, 226 n.; his lives of Bacon and Marlborough, *ib.*; Johnson’s attack on, iv. 223 n.
- Mallet, T. J., iv. 238.
- ‘Mallet’s Mythology of the Celtes’ (criticism), 1757, iv. 233.
- Malloch, David = David Mallet, iv. 224 n.
- Malone, E., and the ‘Life’ of Goldsmith, i. 64 n.; his collection of Goldsmith’s letters, i. 442 n.
- Mammoth, the, v. 79, 93.
- Man, frail, i. 301; a good, and a bad, v. 66; the just, i. 354; savage, v. 77, 134, 198; ungrateful, i. 263; a fretful being, i. 275; the dignity of, ii. 332; a man’s life no history, iv. 54; never past amendment, i. 193; the school of, iii. 249; is a ship, and the world a sea, iii. 313; stature and beauty of, ancient and modern, v. 209; his relations with animals, &c., v. 217; and the brutes, ii. 76, 77, l. 3, iii. 56, 469; and the cat, iii. 56; and the Deity, v. 195; and Nature, iii. 39; and reason, v. 198; the man of the world, and the scholar, iii. 499.
- ‘Man, Allegory on,’ Parnell’s (Johnson on), iv. 176.
- ‘Man in Black, the,’ i. 3, iii. 48, 70, 77, 106, 109, 121, 204, 216, 266, 375 n., 443; his character, iii. 95; his history, iii. 99; and the beggars, iii. 96, 97; his fit of hypochondriasis, iii. 337; his law-suits, iii. 359; his niece, iii. 365; his courting, iii. 444; his quarrel with the pawnbroker’s widow, iii. 445; on love, &c., iii. 419; on ladies’ trains, iii. 303. *See also* Goldsmith, Charles and Henry.
- Man in the bottle, the. *See* ‘Bottle Bubble.’
- ‘Man in the Moon, Advice from the,’ v. 383.
- “Man wants but little here below,” &c., ii. 24, iii. 252.
- Manacabo, the king of, iii. 435.
- Managers (stage) and authors, iii. 539 n. *See also* Stage, &c.
- Mandarin, the, and the old sly bonze, iii. 242.
- Mandarins, the twelve, and the Emperor Tis-iang, iii. 158.
- Man-Fish, the, story of, iii. 329.
- Mangin, his ‘Essays on Light Reading,’ ii. 138 n.
- ‘Man-hater, Asem the.’ *See* ‘Asem, an Eastern Tale.’
- Man-haters, &c., iii. 253, 494.
- Mankind, blindness of, iii. 84; the good of, ii. 7, ll. 44, 54; the volume of, and the volumes of antiquity, iii. 523.
- Manliness of grief, ii. 44, l. 384.
- Manners, ii. 13, l. 239; narrow, v. 328; old, ii. 220.
- Manton, Dr., iv. 182.
- Mantrap, Mrs., ii. 260.
- Manuscripts, Goldsmith’s, i. 410 n., ii. 61, 106, 114, 117. *See also*

- under* Collections, Newbery MSS, *and* Works, &c.
- Map, Mrs., the bone-setter, iv. 433.
- Mar, Earl of, and Bolingbroke, iv. 201, 203.
- Marabous, the, i. 343.
- Marchi, G., portrait of Goldsmith, by, i. 62 n.
- Marchmont, Lord, and Bolingbroke, iv. 227 n.
- 'Margery Two-shoes.' *See* 'Goody Two-Shoes.'
- Margites, the, Homer's, i. 349.
- Maria Theresa, empress, &c., iii. 26, v. 47.
- Marienburg, siege of, iii. 236.
- Marine Society, the, iv. 269 n.
- Mariotte, v. 148.
- Marivaux, iii. 495.
- Marjoram family, the, i. 140.
- Markets for wives, i. 141.
- Markland, Dr., iv. 316.
- Marlborough, Duchess of, i. 38 n., iv. 100; and Beau Nash, iv. 55, 99, 113; and Voltaire, iv. 32.
- Marlborough, Duke of, ii. 415; his Dutch wars, iv. 186; Mr. Hardcastle's stories of, ii. 220, 236; and Bolingbroke, iv. 186, 193.
- Marlborough, the third duke, ii. 415.
- Marlborough's battles, game, iv. 80.
- Marlow, Young, i. 33, ii. 225.
- Marmontel, iii. 511.
- Marriage, iii. 444; in China, iii. 2 n., 364; in France, ii. 241; in the Philippine Islands, &c., iii. 420; advocated, i. 141, v. 396; with a deceased wife's sister, ii. 462; expecting too much from, iv. 483; experiences of, iii. 244; foibles before and after, iii. 69; a game of skill, iii. 72; neglect of, i. 141, iii. 106, 420.
- Marriage Act, the, 1772, ii. 241 n.; iii. 420; censured, iii. 271, 411.
- Marriages, early, i. 402; Fleet, iii. 271 n.; Scotch (Gretna-Green), i. 402; ii. 160, 200.
- Married, and single, i. 402; couples, the quarrels of, v. 387. *See also* Matrimony, &c.
- Marriott, T., iv. 382; his 'Female Conduct,' *ib.* 385 n.; his Horace, *ib.*; his answer to his critics, *ib.*
- 'Marriott's Horace modernized' (criticism), 1759, iv. 382.
- Marrowfat, Dr., iii. 219.
- Marteilhe, Jean, v. 3, 4, 5, 6 n.
- Martha Mumble, iv. 473 n.
- Martial quoted, ii. 376.
- Martial Review* (Preface), 1763, v. 66.
- Mary Blaize, Mrs. *See* Blaise.
- Mary, Queen, v. 301; and Elizabeth, v. 302; and popery, v. 447.
- Mary Stuart, Queen, v. 305; her death, iv. 424.
- Mask, To a, ii. 116, l. 6.
- Mason, iv. 479.
- Mason MSS. (Goldsmith's letters), i. 417 n.
- Masquerade, the world a, ii. l. 12, 92.
- Massey, Wm., iv. 300; his 'Ovid,' *ib.*
- Massey's 'Ovid's Fasti' (criticism), 1757, iv. 300.
- (note), i. 18.
- Massillon, Bishop, i. 272; on the last judgment, iii. 423.
- Massinger, iv. 455 n.
- Master and servant, iii. 146.
- Matches, run-away, twenty-five, i. 403.
- Match-maker, a (? Goldsmith), iii. 444.
- Match-making, iv. 471.
- Match-making, Mrs. Primrose's, i. 83, 89, 95, 103.
- Mathematicians, errors of, v. 149.
- Mathematics, i. 326; iii. 30; v. 255; Goldsmith's dislike of, i. 61 n., 407 n.; iii. 101, 525; iv. 502 n.; a study for "the meanest intellects," iii. 525; too much studied, iii. 525.

- Matilda, the Neapolitan wife, story of, i. 179.
- Matrimonial quarrels, iii. 249.
- Matrimony, discouragements to, iii. 411; English restraints upon, iii. 272; Goody Two-Shoes encourages, v. 396; the Vicar of Wakefield on, i. 71, 75.
- Mattei, Signora Columba, ii. 334 n., 452, 454. (Singer.)
- Matthew, Father = Matthew Ricci, Jesuit Missionary, iii. 376.
- Mattocks, straw-balancer, iii. 80 n.
- Mattocks, Mrs., ii. 146.
- Maupertuis, iv. 42; and Frederick II., ii. 322; and Newton, &c., ii. 321; and Voltaire, ii. 317 n., 322; iv. 46 n.
- 'Maupertuis, Short account of the late Mr.,' ii. 321.
- Mawby, Jos., M.P., iii. 405 n.
- Maximin, iii. 239.
- May, Queen of the, ii. 105, l. 242.
- May-bug, the, v. 184.
- Mayoress, Mrs., iii. 405.
- Mazarine, Cardinal, and De Retz, ii. 335.
- Mazzard, Miss, ii. 328.
- Mê, the philosopher, his maxims, iii. 351; on actors, iii. 321; on music, *ib.*
- Mean, the immutable, iii. 31.
— the, and the great, iii. 52.
- Meanwell, Margery = Goody Two-Shoes.
- Meanwell, Mr., v. 353.
- Measures, not men, ii. 168.
- Meat that eats sweet, i. 292; in France, i. 459; price of, ii. 178.
- Mechanics = Tradesmen, or Shopkeepers, ii. 431; English, are politicians, iii. 21.
- Mechanists, the, v. 145.
- Medauro, the helmet found there, v. 209.
- Medicean family, the, iii. 240.
- Medicine, Goldsmith's knowledge of, iv. 247, 357, v. 344 (*See also* Physician, Goldsmith as a); school of, at Edinburgh, i. 418; schools of, in Holland, i. 429; the study of, i. 424.
- Medicines, patent, J. Newbery's, &c., iii. 256 n.; v. 407 n.
- Mediocrity, i. 1; fruitful, i. 158; in great writers, i. 375; in the pulpit, i. 271; rewards of, ii. 376; Horace on, i. 353.
- 'Meditations upon,' &c. (books so titled), iii. 357.
- Meekly, Miss, i. 404.
- Melancholy, i. 450; v. 201; Goldsmith's, i. 440; a settled, iv. 94; a soothing, i. 183; moments, the most, i. 252; and cheerfulness, i. 188. *See also* Spleen, &c.
- Melissa. *See* Brereton, Jane.
- Memoirs, French, iv. 275, and history.
- Memoranda, &c., Goldsmith's, i. 478-487.
— (notes), i. 410.
— (cross-references to), iv. 232; v. 68.
- Memory, educating, v. 256; feats of, iv. 157.
- Men, great, iii. 490; their deserts, iii. 248; are fools everywhere, ii. 413; their noblest callings, i. 67; soon forgotten, ii. 363; those who are zealous for nothing, i. n. 235; and animals, i. 130, iii. 166, v. 245 [* * At p. 64, vol. vi., of the 'Animated Nature,' Goldsmith remarks upon "Buffon's fine observation that the presence of man not only destroys the society of meaner animals, but their instincts also."]; and apes, ii. 78, l. 41; and books, reputation of, i. 130; and wealth, ii. 34, l. 52; and women. *See also* Sexes, &c., i. 103.
- Menaces, empty, iii. 230.
- Ménage, iv. 404.
- Ménagiana, translation from, ii. 80.
- Menander, i. 351, iv. 427.
- Mencius, iii. 129, 137, 162; and the Hermit, iii. 248.

- Meng-tse. *See* Mencius.
 Mental labour requires most sleep, v. 205.
 Menzikoff, Prince, iii. 236.
 Mercantile, the merely, v. 9.
 Merchant Taylors' Hall, ii. 210.
 Mercury, modern authors likened to, ii. 88, l. 10.
 Mercy, iii. 144 ; and the laws, iii. 298.
 Merit, deceased, at Westminster Abbey, &c., iii. 46, 47 ; unfortunate, ii. 396 ; unknown, ii. 16, l. 354, 79 ; reward of, iii. 172, 500 ; rewards of, in England and France, iii. 492 ; and fortune, ii. 306 ; and poverty, i. 449.
 "Merit only makes distinction," iii. 526.
 'Merope,' Voltaire's, ii. 317.
 Merriment and solemn music, i. 387.
 Merry, be, i. 276, iii. 352 ; companion, a, i. 291 ; times of old, the, i. 278 ; and malicious, to be, v. 331.
 Merry Andrew to a puppet-show, i. 291.
 Mesched, iii. 83.
 Metaphor, ii. 357, iv. 329 ; eastern, iii. 126 ; in oratory, ii. 420 ; poems inflated with, i. 362.
 Metaphors, i. 336, 354, 357, iv. 365 ; mixed, i. 364 ; those in Shakspeare's soliloquy in 'Hamlet,' *ib.*
 'Metaphors, On,' i. 361.
 — (criticism), i. 407.
 Metaphysics, iii. 30, v. 255 ; Bolingbroke's and Swift's views on, iv. 215.
 Metastasio, ii. 453, iii. 480, 482, iv. 479.
 Metcalf, Mr., i. 442 n.
 Meteors, v. 194.
 Methodists, the, i. 250, 273, ii. 226, 426, iii. 399 ; their gravity, iii. 400 ; their preaching, ii. 426 ; and the "Cock-lane Ghost," ii. 471 n.
 Metrodorus, iii. 473.
 Meursius, John, iv. 419.
 Meux (brewer), iv. 413 n.
 Mice, white, story of Pilkington and the, iii. 187 n.
 Michael Angelo, i. 352.
 Michaelmas-eve, i. 84, 110, 111.
 Middle class, the, i. 151.
 Middlesex Justice, a, i. 279.
 "Middling-Class" of people = Mechanics and Tradesmen, ii. 431.
 Migrations of savage tribes, iii. 327.
 Mile-end, ii. 48, l. 55.
 Military achievement, a nation's period of, iii. 326 ; officers, iii. 321 n., 450 (*See also* Officers, Army, &c.) ; scandals, temp. George II., iii. 450.
 "Military caution" censured, iii. 457.
 Militia schemes, iv. 436.
 Milk, spirit from, iii. 388 ; diet, ii. 405.
 "Mill, the busy," ii. 33, l. 11.
 Millar, bookseller, and Bolingbroke's works, iv. 223 n.
 Miller, story of the avaricious, iii. 264.
 Millot's 'History,' i. 472.
 Mills, E., Goldsmith's cousin, i. 433, 442 n., 447, iii. 98 ; Goldsmith's letter to him, i. 433.
 Mills, Mrs. = Mrs. Vincent, *which see.*
 Milner, Dr., and Goldsmith at his school, i. 15, 17, 446, ii. 403 n.
 Milo, iii. 239.
 Milton, i. 359, 372, 376, ii. 456, iii. 530, iv. 232 n., 362, 418, 421, 513 n., v. 63 ; translation of Horace's 'Ode to Pyrrha,' i. 384 ; his 'Il Penseroso' and 'L'Allegro,' v. 155 ; his 'Samson,' iii. 481, iv. 315 ; his poetry and prose, iv. 422, 447, 460 ; Voltaire on, iv. 26, 31, 33 ; Philips's (J.) parody of, v. 158 ; and Homer, i. 357 ; and Salmasius, iv. 376.

- 'Milton no Plagiary,' Dr. Douglas's exposure of W. Lauder, ii. 55 n.
 Minchin, Anne. *See* Parnell, Dr., his wife.
 Mind, the, iii. 179; exercises of the, iii. 30; a glass reflecting the, iii. 173, 174; and beauty, iii. 288; and body, iii. 471; and dissipation, iii. 203. *See also* Minds.
 "Mind, narrow'd his," said of Burke, ii. 53, l. 31.
 Minden, battle of, iv. 462 n.
 Minds, great, iv. 86; decay of great, i. 441; little and eccentric, ii. 376; "little sedulous," iv. 86.
 Minister, welcoming the new (Dr. Primrose), i. 84.
 Minister, prime, an innovating, iii. 369.
 Ministry, opposition to a, ii. 450; necessity of an Opposition, i. 312.
 Minorca, conquest of, iv. 466.
 Minorities, the, ii. 446.
 Minuet, iii. 37.
 Mirabels, the, i. 294.
 Miracle, Father Freijo and the, ii. 361.
 Miracles in Italy, iii. 26; modern, iii. 402; Erasmus on ditto, ii. 477.
 Mirror, the heart should be like a, iii. 31.
 Misanthropes, great, iv. 378.
 'Miscellaneous' (on the reception accorded to 'The Bee,' &c.), 1759, ii. 362.
 Miser, the, ii. 7, l. 51; and the prodigal, ii. 388. *See also* Misers.
 'Miser, The,' Fielding's, ii. 310.
 Miserable, advice to the, i. 175; only the guilty are completely, i. 178; the miserable and (?) Goldsmith's heart, iii. 198.
 Misers, defence of, i. 449; ii. 354, 381, 405; and frugality, iv. 4.
 Misery, iii. 169; artificial, iii. 343; best relieved by dissipation, iii. 178; none without alleviation, i. 146; the school of, iii. 433, iv. 37.
 Misfortunes, i. 175; of the rich and poor, iii. 428; run away from, ii. 337; the way to meet, iii. 178.
 Missionaries to China, iii. 58.
 Missionary travellers, iv. 250.
 Missions, iii. 387.
 'Mistakes of a Night, The' = 'She Stoops to Conquer,' i. 60 n.
 Mitford, Rev. John, his edition of Goldsmith, i. 325, 340, iii. 422; on Goldsmith's letters, i. 410.
 Mob-caps, &c., ii. 109.
 "Mob places" for popular preaching, iv. 172 n.
 Mobs, iii. 70, 143, v. 320.
 'Mock Doctor,' Fielding's, ii. 311.
 Mock suns, v. 194.
 Modest Nature, v. 93.
 Modest, poor but *not*, i. 294.
 Modesty, ii. 304; in men, ii. 223, 234; too much, ii. 169.
 Modenville, iii. 495.
 Moguls, the, iv. 306.
 Mogusius and Brandellius, iii. 281, iv. 406.
 Mohawk, the, ii. 115, l. 27.
 Mohock, the. *See* Mohawk.
 Molière, ii. 146, iii. 532, iv. 283; on the English and French stage, ii. 311.
 Molloy, C., v. 409.
 Monarchy, i. 149, 167, iii. 213, iv. 219; limited, v. 340; Goldsmith's views on, v. 176 n.; preferable to aristocracy, iii. 212; sacred, i. 152; and democracy, iii. 188; and the people, v. 307; v. republic, v. 169, 310, 316.
 Monasteries, the suppression of commenced by Wolsey, v. 292; Queen Elizabeth pays the monks' pensions, v. 306; foreign, i. 13.
 Monastery, a, i. 280.
 Monastic ignorance, iii. 488.

- Money, the distribution of, iii. 274; the hidden, and the two philosophers, v. 402; the man who dreamt of a pan of: *see* Miller, story of the avaricious.
- "Money, ready, makes a man perfect," i. 261.
- Monk, General, relics of, iii. 52.
- Monk, Padovano, the sleep-walking, iv. 506.
- Monkeyman, the Marquis of, iii. 148.
- Monkeys. *See* Apes.
- Monks, ii. 411; their participation in the burnings, &c., temp. Mary, v. 301; vices of, v. 301.
- Monogamist theories, i. 75-77.
- Monogamy, i. 45, 157.
- Monroe, Dorothy, ii. 47, l. 24.
- Monsters of nature, v. 93; and sights, running after, iii. 169.
- Montague, Earl of Halifax, iv. 420.
- Montague, Ed. W., iii. 389 n.
- Montaigne, i. 46, 451, iii. 162, iv. 54, 319; on Physiognomy, v. 202.
- Montesquieu, iv. 281; his 'Lettres Persanes,' i. 53, iii. 1 n.; his 'Spirit of Laws,' ii. 428, iii. 494, iv. 363; and Piron, iii. 494.
- 'Montesquieu's Miscellaneous Pieces' (criticism), 1759, iv. 362.
- Montezuma joke, Gibbon's, v. 172 n.
- Montfaucon, B. de (?), v. 268.
- Monthly Review, The*, iii. 50, 503, 511, iv. 232, 233, 264, 287, 291, 338, 382, 399, 407; contributors to, iv. 407; Goldsmith's contributions to, i. 17, 445, 481, iii. 50, iv. 232, 264, 274, 287, 291, 303, 322, 350, 407, v. 4, 158; Griffiths and, i. 445, 249, 282, 407, &c.; Mrs. Griffiths and, iv. 408; and the *Critical*, iii. 50, iv. 410.
- Montjoys, the, iii. 455.
- Monument in Westminster Abbey, Goldsmith's, i. 2, 40, 60, 63.
- Monument Yard, Goldsmith in, i. 16. *See also* Fish Street Hill.
- Moon, the, ii. 114, l. 6.
- "Moon, second cousin to the," &c., ii. 416.
- Moore, Edward, ii. 451, iii. 508; his 'Fables for Ladies,' v. 159.
- Moorfields, i. 249, iii. 260 n.
- Moral, beauty, i. 334; culture before scientific, i. 331; lesson, a, by 'Goody Two Shoes,' v. 365.
- Moralist, a profound, iii. 183.
- Moralists, iii. 365.
- "Morality, let us have no," iii. 181; and learning, iii. 467.
- Morals, the gentler, ii. 13, l. 235; systems of, v. 343; the English foremost as writers on, v. 346; and history, teaching, iii. 525.
- Mordaunt, Sir John, trial, iii. 321 n., 450 n., 457 n.
- Mordaunt, Sir Philip, iii. 278.
- More, Dr. Henry, his 'Dialogues,' iv. 176, v. 155.
- More, Sir T., iv. 446.
- Morgan, Charles, of Bath, iv. 48 n., 55, 132 n.
- Morgan, Captain William, iv. 194.
- Morning Chronicle*, its first editor (Kenrick), ii. 55 n., 56 n.; lines in, attributed to Goldsmith, v. 410.
- Morocco, the black Queen of, ii. 177. * * * A Bartholomew Fair exhibition.
- Morris, actor, ii. 215 n.
- Moses, iv. 314.
- Moses Primrose quotes the ancients, i. 89, 92.
- Mostadad, iii. 134.
- Mothe-le-Wayer, La, ii. 411.
- Mother, the, ii. 43, l. 379.
- 'Mother-in-law, The,' &c. (criticism), 1757, iv. 274.
- Motte, de la, his essay on the rules of the drama, iv. 14; and Voltaire, iv. 13.
- Moufett, Thos., naturalist, v. 71.
- Moufflon, the, v. 213.
- Mouldwell, v. 353, 396.
- Mountain climbing, v. 193.

- Mountains, v. 193.
 Mountebanks, &c., iii. 172.
 Mourning ceremonies, iv. 134;
 court, iii. 356; for the king
 (George II.), iii. 353; in Eng-
 land and China, iii. 2 n., 67, 353.
 Mouse, Prince Bonbennin's white,
 iii. 182.
 Mowbrays, the, iii. 452.
 MSS. See Manuscripts.
 Much-amor, mushroom broth, iii.
 123.
 "Muddy" dispositions, iii. 501.
 Mudford, his Memoir of Gold-
 smith, i. 15.
 Mudler, Lord, iii. 204.
 Muffett, naturalist: *See* Moufett.
 Muffs worn by men, ii. 326-7.
 Mule, its barrenness, v. 93.
 Multitude, the. *See* Mob, &c.
 Mummies, Egyptian, v. 209; a
 maker of, iii. 170.
 Munk, Dr. William, his 'Roll of
 the Royal College of Physicians,'
 ii. 214 n.
 Munro, Prof., i. 418.
 Muratori, iii. 490, iv. 388.
 Murphy, A., i. 240 n., ii. 391; as
 an actor, iv. 285, 353 n.; his
 epilogue for 'She Stoops,' i. 467,
 ii. 111 n.; his 'Orphan of China,'
 ii. 392, iv. 350; his 'Zenobia,'
 ii. 115 n.
 Murray, Mr., and Bolingbroke, iv.
 227 n.
 Murray, Mr. John, his Newbery
 MSS., i. 478, 479 n.
 Muscovy, the wild lands of, iii. 38.
 Mushroom feast, a, iii. 123.
 Music, ii. 4, iii. 340; English,
 French, &c. *See under* England,
 France, &c.; national, i. 387;
 Aristotle on, i. 340; effect of, i.
 387; fugues, i. 387; Goldsmith's
 knowledge of, i. 13, 389, ii. 452;
 patronage of, iii. 130; and danc-
 ing, iv. 296; and madness, v. 206;
 and women should never be
 dated, ii. 259.
 'Music, On the Different Schools
 of,' i. 386, 389.
 "Musical glasses, Shakspeare and
 the," i. 105, 107.
 Musicians, iii. 197, 216.
 Musidorus, the poor, proud friend,
 iv. 511.
 Musschenbroeck, iii. 490.
 Mutton, Banstead, i. 330.
 Muzzy Club, the, i. 252.
 'My days have been,' Parnell's,
 iv. 174.
 'Myra,' Sonnet on, ii. 79.
 'Mystery Revealed, The,' &c. *See*
 'Cock Lane Ghost.'
 Mythology of the Celtes, iv. 233;
 Greek, &c., i. 344, v. 171.
 Nabis, the virgin of, v. 137.
 Nails, long, with the Chinese, iii.
 76.
 Nancy Dawson, dancer, also air,
 ii. 114, l. 22, 290.
 Nangfu, emperor, iii. 301.
 Nanhoa, Queen of the Scarlet
 Dragons, iii. 182.
 Nani, Italian historian, iv. 388.
 Nantes, Edict of, revocation of the,
 v. 6.
 Napier, or Napper, Gen. R., his
 evictions at Lissoy, ii. 138 n.,
 139 n.
 Napier, Rev. Alexander, his ed.
 Boswell, i. 23, iv. 185.
 Napoleon, Code, ii. 428 n.
 Napper, Gen. R. *See* Napier.
 Naseby, battle of, v. 329; error in
 Goldsmith's account of the battle,
 v. 179 n.
 Nash, Beau. *See* Nash, Richard.
 Nash, Richard, "King of Bath,"
 iv. 47; his borrowing and lend-
 ing, iv. 59; his character, iv.
 107, 141; his jests, iv. 120, 153
 n.; in the Middle Temple, iv. 57-
 60; his portraits, &c., iv. 49, 111,
 iii. 154 n.; his stories, iv. 121;
 his white hat, iv. 76; at York,
 iv. 61; his advice to a young
 gamester, iv. 77; defence of, iv.
 131; Anstey on, iv. 89 n.;
 Chesterfield's (?) epigram on, iv.
 112; Mr. Forster on, iv. 48 n.;

- Steele's anecdote of, iv. 59 ; and Bath, iv. 48 n, 49, 107 n., 112 ; and Beau Tibbs, iv. 88 n., 121 ; and his father, iv. 55.
- 'Nash, the Life of Richard,' iv. 47.
- (notes on), i. 407, 479, ii. 212, iv. 48, 107, 113, 114, 127, 142, 153.
- (criticism of), iv. 48, 142.
- (cross-reference to), iv. 42.
- National characteristics, i. 54, 320, ii. 329.
- 'National Concord,' i. 311.
- National music and character, i. 387.
- 'National Prejudices, On,' i. 320.
- Nations, blessings of, ii. 8, l. 80 ; decline of, v. 8 ; their rise and decline, iii. 237.
- Natural History, v. 68, 183 ; systems of, v. 184 ; writers on, v. 69, 185-6. *See also under* 'Animated Nature,' and 'Natural History,' Brookes's.
- 'Natural History,' Brookes's (Prefaces, &c.), 1763, v. 68.
- (notes on), i. 30, 480, 481, 483, v. 2, 76, 119, 149, 182. *See also under* 'Animated Nature.'
- (criticism of), v. 182.
- 'Natural Knowledge,' iii. 484.
- Natural philosophy, teaching, ii. 406, v. 143.
- Goldsmith's. *See* 'Experimental Philosophy.'
- Naturalist, the, v. 185.
- Naturals, iii. 148.
- Nature, ii. 8, l. 81 ; modest, v. 93 ; tremendous, i. 263 ; appearances of, v. 143 ; the book of, iii. 24 ; is beautiful, i. 264 ; deformed, not a good model, v. 74 ; a description from, iii. 113 ; drawing from, i. 451, ii. 115, l. 40, iv. 5, 172, 366 ; drawing from, and drawing from life, iv. 427 ; is fond of the poor, but a stepmother to the rich, i. 292 ; hides our hearts to preserve our good humour, v. 202 ; imitate, v. 189 ; food for Nature's lumber room, i. 162 ; makes us but few misfortunes, i. 175 ; monsters of, v. 93 ; the operations of, v. 196 ; study of, i. 324, 328, ii. 392, iii. 478, 480, iv. 430 ; take her in the humour, i. 296 ; vicissitudes of, in the rise and decline of nations, iii. 237 ; wisdom of, v. 118 ; and affectation, iv. 498 ; and Art, i. 331, 337, 338 ; and eloquence, ii. 420 ; and God ('Anti-Lucretius'), iv. 265 ; and man, iii. 39 ; and poetry, i. 339 ; and simplicity, iii. 287.
- 'Nature of Man,' Blackmore's, and Goldsmith's 'Traveller,' i. 54.
- Navy, British, iii. 92 ; temp. Alfred, v. 272 ; temp. Eliz., v. 308.
- Neal, Sir Paul, iv. 370 n.
- Neapolitan wife, Matilda the, story of, i. 179.
- Necessaries, iii. 41.
- Necessary, what is ? i. 268.
- Necklace, anodyne : *see* Anodyne.
- Needy, the very, are ever flatterers, iv. 113 ; they see the worst side of mankind, iv. 44.
- Negligents (wigs), iv. 87.
- Negro, the, ii. 8, l. 69.
- Neligan, Dr., Goldsmith's grand-nephew, i. 2 n.
- Nesbitt, ii. 94, l. 11.
- Netherlands, the, v. 52 ; and Austria, v. 45 ; England and, v. 54 ; France and, v. 52, 55. *See also* Dutch, the, Holland, &c.
- Neverout, Lord, ii. 209.
- Neville, Miss, ii. 224.
- New, the, iv. 350 ; is not true, i. 157, 235.
- New Year's Day, v. 405.
- 'New Year's Gift,' the, v. 371, 374.
- Newbery, John, publisher, i. 145.
- [* * Mr. Ford thinks that the scene introducing Newbery in the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' may be founded on an actual meeting of Goldsmith and his publisher in Yorkshire, about 1760.] 237 n., 453 n., 471 n., iii. 1 n., 110 n., 256 n., iv. 153 n., v.

- 60 n., 62 n., 65, 66, 68 n., 75 n., 119 n., 129, 150 n., 353 n., 355, 356; Goldsmith's riddle on, v. 406; his 'Art of Poetry,' v. 409, 412 n.; his children's books, i. 19 n., 453 n., v. 351, 353, 355, 356 n., 357 n., 362, 371, 374, 388 n., 395 n., 405 n., 411 n.; Mr. Pearson on, v. 411 n.; Mr. Welsh on, v. 408, 411 n.; Dr. James's Powder, &c., sold by, i. 39 n.; his shops, iii. 16 n., iv. 466 n.; his successors, i. 39, v. 405. [See also Newberys, the, and Newbery, Francis, &c.]; his purchase of Goldsmith's 'Vicar,' i. 20, v. 133 [and see Francis Newbery, the nephew, below, also under 'Vicar.']. Goldsmith's letters, &c., to, i. 452, 478-84; and the 'Cock-Lane Ghost,' ii. 473; and Goldsmith, i. 21, 452, ii. 455, iv. 452, 514, v. 143, 250; and the *Reading Mercury*, &c., v. 67, 68.
- Newbery, Elizabeth, v. 407.
- Newbery, Francis, John Newbery's son, i. 64, 239, 471.
- Newbery, Francis (nephew of John), i. 21, 64, v. 133, 143.
* * * Contrary to our Memoir (i. 21), it seems that John Newberry purchased the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' though his nephew published it. See, however, Mr. C. Welsh's late discovery relative to the sale of the novel, under 'Vicar.'
- Newbery, William, his Goldsmith collection, i. 479.
- Newbery MSS., the, i. 410, 452, 478, 479, 481, ii. 457, iv. 48, v. 68, 129, 142, 150.
- Newberys, the, iv. 505 n.; Mr. Welsh's account of, v. 408.
- Newcastle, Goldsmith at, i. 426; Pinwire (runner) of, i. 218.
- Newell, Rev. R. H., i. 62; his edition of the 'Deserted Village,' account of Lissoy, &c., i. 59, ii. 35, 141.
- Newgate, in, iii. 430; those hanged at, i. 303; the Ordinary of, i. 301, ii. 471 n.
- 'Newgate Ordinary, Essay written by the,' i. 301.
- Newmarket races, iii. 29, 322, iv. 149, v. 211.
- News, ii. 115, l. 31.
- News-centres, coffee-houses as, iv. 465; in the country: See 'Wow-wow.'
- Newspaper, attacks on Goldsmith's Hist. Eng., i. 462, v. 176 n., 177 n.; controversy, i. 453, ii. 21; wits, ii. 60, l. 17; writers, ii. 451.
- Newspapers, iii. 23, 24, 279; Goldsmith's writings in, i. 35; various 18th century, alluded to, i. 148; and history, v. 17. See also Journals, &c.
- Newton, i. 441, iv. 24, 268, v. 334; his discoveries, v. 148; his philosophy abroad, ii. 321; and Maupertuis, &c., ii. 321; Pope and Beau Nash, Chesterfield's(?) epigram on, iv. 111.
- Niagara, ii. 18, l. 412.
- Nicetus, the Jesuit, essay 'On Physiognomy' from, v. 413 n.
- Nicholas, the fiddler, iii. 250.
- Nichols, Dr., his account of Goldsmith's death, i. 39.
- Nichols, J., printer, his son "kinsman" to Bishop Percy, v. 76 n.
- Niece, Goldsmith's poor, v. 77.
- Night, ii. 376; the streets at, iii. 422.
- Nightcaps, ii. 85, l. 46; buying, iii. 290.
- Nightingale, the, ii. 37, l. 124, 135, v. 233, 384; in the 'Deserted Village,' v. 233; the Irish (the robin) ii. 141 n., v. 233 n.
- 'Night Piece on Death,' Parnell's, iv. 176.
- No, the man who could not say, ii. 186, 198.
- Nob, the old, or pricking in the belt, iv. 115.

- Nobility, the, iii. 291; English, iii. 121; the young, iv. 57; their duties, &c., iii. 180; as patrons of literature, &c., iii. 129, 492, 503; and assemblies, i. 278; and horse-racing, iii. 322.
- Nobleman, A, to his Son, Letters on History. *See* 'England, History in a Series of Letters,' &c.
- 'Nobleman, unfortunate, Adventures of an' (Annesley), iv. 103 n.
- Noblemen, education and taste of, iii. 215; their many names, iii. 434; their popularity as authors, iii. 214; writers, iv. 477; and art, iii. 192; and workmen in Russia, i. 300.
- "Nobody with me at sea but myself," ii. 48, l. 60.
- Nollekens, his medallion of Goldsmith, i. 40, 63.
- Nonentity, Dr. iii. 110.
- Nonly = only, ii. 290.
- 'Noontide Air,' the (song), i. 309.
- Norman England, v. 263.
- Normans and Danes, v. 269; and Saxons in England, iv. 439.
- North, Lord, Goldsmith and, ii. 49 n.
- Northcote, Jas., R.A., his Goldsmith collections, v. 410; on Goldsmith, and Mrs. Abington, ii. 292; Hazlitt's 'Conversations of,' ii. 94.
- Northumberland, Countess of, and 'Edwin and Angelina,' ii. 20 n.
- Northumberland, Duke of, and Goldsmith, i. 24, 47.
- Northumberland House, iii. 43 n.
- Northumberland Street, ii. 466.
- Norval, in 'Douglas,' iii. 298, iv. 252.
- Norway, the poetry of, iii. 514.
- Notes, "the baggage of a bad writer," v. 139; commentative, iv. 326.
- Nourse, Mr. John, publisher, i. 470, 484, v. 182.
- Novel, a Chinese, iii. 150 n.; Goldsmith's lost, i. n. 239; the last new, ii. 224; a modern, ii. 288; writing, i. 401.
- Novelist, "the pen of a," iii. 443.
- Novels, iii. 513, iv. 88, 274, 483, 510, v. 4; modern, iv. 386; obscene and pert, iii. 199; injurious to youth, i. 449. *See also* Romances.
- Novelty, ii. 360, 401, 439, iv. 350; pursuing, and losing content, i. 155.
- Noxious creatures, their use, v. 119.
- Nugent, Dr., i. 23.
- Nugent, Lord. *See* i. 47 n.; his poems, v. 159. *See also* Clare, Viscount.
- Nugosi, the antiquary, iii. 26.
- Number, in poetry, i. 382.
- Nuts, burning, on Michaelmas-eve, i. 84, 110.
- "O Memory! thou fond deceiver," (about 1761), ii. 83.
- Oaths, Beau Tibbs', iii. 364; Nash's, iv. 121, 127; fashionable, i. 106; Goldsmith's use of, i. 94. *See also* Swearing.
- Obey, to, i. 67.
- Obligations, iii. 246, 366.
- Obscenity, wit and, iii. 495.
- Obscure ages, the, v. 145; arts, &c., in, iii. 476; learning in, *ib.* *See also* Dark Ages.
- Obscurely useful, when to be content with being, v. 162.
- "Obscurity, a judicious," iv. 243.
- 'Observer,' L'Estrange's, ii. 445 n.
- Observing life, ii. 243.
- Ocean, the, and Holland, ii. 15, l. 291.
- Ociosio, academy in Italy, ii. 418.
- Octavio, ii. 294.
- Oddbody, Miss, ii. 157.
- Ode, the, and hyperbole, i. 381.
- Odes, affected, &c., iii. 512; modern, iii. 152; and elegies, i. 140.
- Odin and Friga, iv. 234, 236.
- 'Œdipe,' Voltaire's, iii. 163 n.

- Offences, pardoning, i. 175.
 Offending, the fear of, ii. 149.
 Officers, iv. 515 n.; and soldiers, iii. 447, v. 337.
 'Officers, English, On the character of,' 1758, iii. 450.
 — (notes) iii. 321.
 — (cross-reference) iii. 321.
 Ogilby's Homer, i. 353.
 Oglethorpe, Fanny (Jacobite), iv. 199.
 Oglethorpe, Gen. J. E., v. 177 n.; his letter to Goldsmith, v. 176 n.; Goldsmith and Johnson with, iii. 43 n.
 Okey, iv. 408 n.
 Olaus Wormius, iii. 513.
 "Old, I love everything that's," ii. 220.
 Old age, i. 77. *See also* Age.
 Old Bailey, the, iii. 255; jury-men, i. 304. *See also* Green Arbour Court.
 Oldcastle, Sir John, i. 282; execution of, v. 282 n.
 Oldenburg, iii. 436.
 'Old House, The, a New Inn,' Goldsmith's first title for 'She Stoops to Conquer,' ii. 216 n.
 'Old Jackson,' song, i. 251.
 Old Street, iii. 441 n.
 Old Testament, i. 353. *See also* Bible.
 Old things, affection for, iii. 277; are true things, i. 157.
 'Old Woman Tossed in a Blanket,' song, sung by Goldsmith, ii. 214 n.
 'Olinda, Sabinus and,' story of, ii. 432.
 Oliver, Dr., William, of Bath, iv. 106, 131, 132, 136, 154; his 'Sketch' of Beau Nash, iv. 136.
 Olivia, the Vicar's daughter, i. 73; her song, i. 183, ii. 91.
 Olivia ('Good-Natured Man'), ii. 157.
 Olympiodorus, iii. 478.
 Omens of good fortune, i. 108.
 Omissions from this edition of Goldsmith's Works, v. 408 n.
 'Omrah, The History of,' v. 413.
 'On the Death of the Right Hon., &c.,' iii. 384.
 "Once and away," i. 305.
 Opera, English, iii. 294; rivalry of Drury Lane, and Covent Garden theatres in, 295 n.; Italian, iii. 516; Italian and English, rivalry of, iii. 295 n.; opera-going, ii. 290.
 'Opera in England, Of the,' 1759, ii. 452.
 Opinion, giving an, i. 321.
 Opinion, iii. 297.
 Opposition, characters delighting in, iv. 181; in Parliament, its necessity, i. 312.
 Orange stuffed with cloves, an, iv. 383.
 Oratorio, Goldsmith's, 'The Captivity.' *See* 'Captivity.'
 Orators in Charles I.'s Parliament, iii. 525.
 Oratory, ii. 408, 420, iv. 347; at the bar, ii. 424; in the senate, ii. 424; popular, i. 271, 273; in the pulpit, ii. 424; use of poetry in, i. 354; inutility of rules for teaching, ii. 424, iv. 348; teaching, iii. 525; Lawson's work on, iv. 348.
 'Oratory, Ward's System of' (criticism), 1759, iv. 347.
 "Order," the balance of, ii. 17, l. 375.
 Orders of Knighthood: *See* Knighthood.
 O'Regan, Irish officer at the battle of the Boyne, v. 337.
 Orford, Lady: *See* Rolle, Miss S.
 Oriental languages, figures in, i. 374; literature, iii. 126-7.
 Original = origin, iii. 33.
 Originality often at fault, iii. 467; and imitation, iv. 364.
 Orkney Islands, the, eagles in, v. 222.
 Orlandino and Lucretia, story of, ii. 418.
 Orleans, the Regent, and the Pretender, iv. 200, 202.

- Ormond, Duke of, and the Pretender, iv. 196 n., 197.
 Oromasdes. *See* Hormizda.
 'O'Rourke's Noble fare' (song), i. 393.
 'Orphan,' Otway's, iv. 499 : *See also* Otway.
 'Orphan of China, The' (criticism), 1759, iv. 350.
 — (note on), i. 408.
 Orpheus, with Eurydice *found*, iv. 488.
 Orrery, Lord. *See* Cork, Lord.
 Orthoepy, iv. 314.
 Orthography and orthoepy, iv. 314.
 Orthyan song, the, i. 343.
 Ortolans, i. 302.
 Ossian, Macpherson's, ii. 55 n.
 Ostade, i. 390.
 Ostentation, ii. 14, l. 273.
 Ostiacs, the, iii. 18.
 Ostrich, the, v. 232.
 Oswald's 'Scotch Tunes,' i. 391.
 Oswego, ii. 18, l. 411, ii. 104, l. 213.
 Otway, i. 146, ii. 446, iii. 347, iv. 27, 352, 418, 425, v. 334; his death, ii. 446; in Grub Street, i. 157; his poverty, iii. 315; his lost tragedy, ii. 446; his 'Poet's Complaint' (?), i. 339; quoted (?), iii. 262; on dogs, iii. 262; on the poor and sleep, v. 205; Hume on, iv. 253 n.; and Butler, i. 440; and Lee, i. 330; and Shakspeare, v. 346.
 'Our Own Times, The History of,' 1757-8, v. 7 n.
 — (notes on), iii. 459, iv. 437.
 — (cross-references), iii. 452.
 Ourselves, make our own felicity, ii. 18, l. 431; talking of, iii. 446; we should reverence, iv. 366.
 Ovation, an, iii. 105.
 Overseer of the poor, a tyrannical, v. 354.
 Ovid, i. 99, iv. 243, 300; and Tibullus, i. 330.
 'Ovid's Epistles, Barrett's' (criticism), 1759, iv. 325.
 Owen, W., bookseller, iv. 384.
 Owenson, Mr., actor, ii. 294.
 Owl, the, ii. 135.
 Owl, the = Vaugelas, *which see*.
 "Ox-cheek, piping hot," iii. 210.
 Oxford, Lord. *See* Harley, Robert.
 Oxford University, iii. 523, v. 300; Queen Elizabeth's visit to, v. 306; story of the pope's legate there, temp. Henry III. (?) v. 281; Rolle's fund, iv. 316.
 Pack, Major Richardson, his 'Miscellanies' quoted, iv. 60 n.
 Paddereen mare, the, iii. 28.
 Padovano, Cyrillo. *See* Cyrillo Padovano.
 Padua, Goldsmith at, i. 11, 15; the university, iii. 523.
 Paduasoy, i. 86, 302.
 Paganism, relics of, ii. 413.
 Pageants, ii. 382, iii. 242, 243, 380 : *See also* Rejoicings, Public.
 Pagods, Chinese, iii. 54.
 Pain, dissipating, i. 275; the mystery of, i. 208; and pleasure, iv. 240-1.
 Paine, T., his first work, v. 178 n.; as an exciseman, v. 177 n.; his letter to Goldsmith, v. 177 n.; R. Carlile's 'Life' of, v. 178 n.; and Goldsmith, iii. 301 n., v. 177 n.
 Painter, a travelling, i. 133 : (*see also* under Portrait painter); one in prison, iv. 165; he who tried to please the whole world, iii. 230.
 Painting, ii. 4; amateur, iii. 180; Roman, Dutch, and Flemish schools of, i. 130; schools of, i. 390; composition in, i. 133; judges of, iii. 513; the passion for, iii. 129; undue patronage of, ii. 397; and poetry, iv. 243.
 Pair-royal at Basset, iii. 148.
 Pa-kua, the, iii. 151.
 Palace-yard, at the coronation of George III., i. 310.
 Palephates, v. 134.
 Pallas, or Pallice, i. 61 n.
 Pallice, or Pallas, i. 61 n.
 Pall Mall, ii. 468.

- Palmer, actor, ii. 309, 396.
 Pam (at loo), ii. 108.
 "Pambamarca's side," ii. 45, l. 418.
 Pancakes in Shrovetide, i. 84.
 Pancirollus, iv. 344.
 Pancrace and Pancridge = Pancras; *which see*.
 Pancras, St., iii. 442.
 Panegyric, iii. 10.
 Panegyrics upon noblemen, &c., iii. 115.
 Panics, iii. 384; relating to the sun, the planets, &c., iii. 343; English. *See* Epidemic terrors, &c.
 Pantagruel, iii. 474.
 Pantheon, the, ii. 246.
 'Pantheon,' Tooke's, ii. 87, l. 6.
 Pantomime, ii. 116, l. 6.
 Pantoppidian, Bishop, iii. 514.
 Panurge (pseudonym), ii. 49, l. 78.
 Paoli, of Corsica, ii. 209.
 Paper cutting, iii. 339.
 Paradise, Mahomet's, iii. 363.
 'Paradise Lost' and Grotius' 'Adamus Exul,' ii. 55 n.
 Paradox, iv. 11.
 Paradoxes, dressing up, i. 157.
 Paragoge, syncope, &c., iii. 258.
 Paraguay, Charlevoix's account of, iv. 257.
 Pardoning offences, i. 175.
 Pardons, sale of, v. 293.
 Parent and child, iii. 367.
 Parental affection of the fox, v. 217.
 Parenthesis, syncope, and apoplexy, iii. 258.
 Parents, advice of, v. 65; duty to, i. 477; as educators, i. 474.
 Paris, i. 165, iv. 464; a "badge of the slavery of the people" there, v. 223; medical schools of, i. 424; modest beggars in, ii. 322; and other fashions, ii. 324; Goldsmith there, v. 223; Goldsmith's visit, 1770, i. 32 n., 458, iv. 180 n.
 'Paris, a Journey to,' play projected by Goldsmith, i. 459.
 Parish misgovernment, v. 354; the poor, and the, iii. 430.
 Park, in the, iii. 197, 207.
 Parker, Archbishop, his translation of the Bible, v. 308.
 Parliament, the, of Charles I., iv. 459; its "self-denying ordinance," v. 329; debates at midnight, ii. 185; Burke called the "dinner-bell" in, ii. 53 n.; Henry IV.th's English speech in, iv. 442.
 Parliaments, triennial, v. 340. *See also* Commons, House of, &c.
 Parmenio, iii. 143.
 Parnell, Dr. T., v. 346; his preaching, iv. 178; his wife, iv. 158, 171; why he took to drinking, iv. 171; his 'Fairy Tale,' v. 159; his 'Hermit,' ii. 21 n., iv. 420, v. 155; his assistance in Pope's 'Homer,' iv. 162, 169; his 'Night Piece on Death,' v. 158; his 'Pervigilium Veneris,' iv. 175; his Poems, and Pope's editions of them, iv. 162, 172; his prose works, iv. 169, 177; his Latin version of the 'Rape of the Lock,' iv. 175; quoted, ii. 378; Johnson on, iv. 172 n.; Pope's assistance to, iv. 164, v. 155; and Pope, iv. 420 n.
 'Parnell, Dr., Epitaph on,' 1770, ii. 91.
 — (note on), iv. 156.
 'Parnell, Thomas, D.D., the Life of,' 1768, iv. 155.
 — (notes on), i. 29, iv. 156, 162, 174.
 — (criticism of), i. 58, 407, iv. 156.
 — (cross-references to), iv. 232, 421, 426, 502, v. 155, 170.
 Parnell, Sir John, iv. 159, 174, 178.
 Parnelle, Pope's spelling of Dr. Parnell's name, iv. 163.
 Parody and imitation, v. 158.
 Parrot, the, his jaw, v. 199.
 Parrots, talking, v. 227.

- Parson, the popular, iii. 392.
 Parsons, jolly, iii. 220 n.; and
 squires, iv. 493.
 Parsons, impostor, Cock-laneghost
 affair, i. 254, ii. 463, 465, 469,
 476 n.
 Parsons, Dr., iii. 260 n.
 Parsons, Lady (brewster), iv.
 413 n.
 "Parsons' black champagne" =
 porter, brewed by Lady Parsons,
 ii. 82, iv. 413 n.
 Parties, balls, &c., iv. 471.
 Partridge-fighting in Java, iii.
 322.
 Partridge, Sir Miles, i. 289.
 Party, iv. 160, v. 406; in Queen
 Anne's reign, iii. 457; Walpole
 (H.) on, i. 315 n.; historians,
 v. 261; writers, ii. 445, 450;
 Burke gave to it "what was
 meant for mankind," ii. 53, l.
 32; and politics, ii. 4.
 Pascal, v. 148.
 Passage, game, iv. 80.
 Passay (dance), ii. 298.
 Passion is always poetical, iv. 427;
 and metaphors, i. 363; and
 oratory, ii. 421; and philosophy,
 iii. 137; and poetry, i. 378;
 and simile, i. 374.
 Passions, the, government of, i.
 475; as shown in the face, v.
 201; suppressing, i. 329; and
 wisdom, iii. 178.
 Paste jewels, ii. 254.
 Pastoral poetry, v. 157.
 Patagonia, iii. 414.
 Patches, face, ii. 85, l. 40, iii. 20.
 Pately, Capt., iv. 123.
 Pately, Lord, ii. 247.
 Paternal vanity, v. 254.
 Pater-Noster Row, ii. 77, l. 34,
 364.
 Pathetic, the, i. 98, 328, 400.
 Pathos, i. 363, ii. 422, 446, iv. 352.
 Patibulary, iii. 324.
 Patience, i. 146, ii. 150, iii. 252.
 Patient Grissel, story, i. 91.
 Patrick, as a dictionary maker, iv.
 313 n.
 Patriot, the, iii. 491; a pseudo, i.
 321.
 'Patriot King,' Bolingbroke's, ii.
 449, iv. 219.
 Patriotism, ii. 8, l. 73, 12, l. 200;
 and revenge, ii. 367.
 Patriots, false, ii. 92, l. 15.
 Patronage, iii. 367; literary, iii.
 503; and authors, iii. 115; and
 the press, ii. 444. *See also*
Literature, &c.
 Pattern drawing, amateur, ii. 261.
 Paul, Sir, and my lord, i. 256.
 Paulo Borghese, poet, iii. 314.
 Pawnbroker, the, ii. 386; ii. 81,
 l. 8; a, iii. 105; one's wife, iii.
 174; one's widow, iii. 266.
 Payne, publisher, v. 150 n.
 Peace, ii. 101, l. 104; the, of 1769,
 celebration of, iii. 148 n; is the
 only triumph of victory, iv. 468;
 counsels, iii. 64; dictating terms
 of, iv. 467; a long-continued,
 iv. 467; and war, v. 31.
 Peace of Paris, 1763, i. 316 n.
 "Peace-makers," the (in Dutch
 law proceedings), ii. 384.
 Peach, Mr., his 'Historic Houses
 in Bath' quoted, iv. 48, 95, 107,
 142.
 Pearce, Miss, actress, ii. 294.
 Pearson, Dr., on the locality of
 the "Three Pigeons," ii. 228 n.
 Pearson, Mr. E., on 'Goody Two-
 Shoes,' &c., v. 356, 388.
 Peasant, the English, ii. 16, l. 333,
 ii. 387, iii. 447; the Swiss, ii.
 11, l. 177; peasant driving, v.
 350. *See also* Eviction, Poor,
 &c.
 "Peasantry, a bold," ii. 34, l. 55.
 Pease-soup and potatoes, ii. 348.
 Peckham, Goldsmith at Milner's
 school at, i. 15.
 Pedantry, iv. 376; and criticism,
 iii. 513.
 Pedants, iii. 465, iv. 332; of
 science, ii. 416.
 Pedianus, iii. 473.
 Pedigree, Aunt, ii. 269.
 Peerage, Lady Blarney and Miss

- Skeggs' story of the, i. 112; romance of the (case of James Annesley), iv. 103.
- Peers, the witty, ii. 75.
- Pegu, iii. 434.
- Penal laws, i. 198; against increasing, iii. 298; English, iii. 36; increase of, v. 270, 340.
- Penitence, places of, should be established, i. 197.
- Pennick, Rev. R., i. 462; Goldsmith's letters to, *ib.*
- 'Pentalogia,' Burton's. *See* 'Greek Tragedies,' Burton's.
- Penthesilea, queen of the Amazons, i. 317.
- People, a, its genius lies with its vulgar, iii. 340; the, v. 55; power of the, v. 284; the middle class are really the, i. 151; "study the people," iv. 296; liberties of the, Goldsmith and, v. 176 n., 177 n.; the people and the laws, iii. 188; and monarchy, v. 307.
- Percy, Dr., Bishop of Dromore, i. 1, 23, 24; 'his Ballads,' and 'Edwin and Angelina,' i. 453-4, ii. 20, 21; his Chinese novel, iv. 351 n.; his correspondence, v. 2 n.; his 'Hermit of Warkworth,' ii. 21 n.; his "kinsman" Nichols, v. 76 n.; his (Mallet's) 'Northern Antiquities,' iv. 234 n., 238 n.; his visit to Goldsmith, i. 18; and Goldsmith, i. 44, 311, 454, 463, ii. 22; *See also* his edit. Goldsmith.
- his Life and Works of Goldsmith, i. 2, 29, 201, 202, 307, 311, 385, 405, 406, 410, 422, 480, ii. 28, 45, 89, 92, 114, 456, iii. 12, 415, iv. 416, v. 2, 68, 76, 142, 150, 177, 178, 179, 414.
- Percy, Earl. *See* Northumberland, Duke of.
- "Perfect, ready money makes a man," i. 261.
- Pergolesi and his school of music, i. 386, 387, 388, ii. 453.
- Periodicals, writing in, iv. 409.
- Peripatetics, the, v. 145.
- Perkins, Sir W. *See* Friend, Sir J.
- Perron, Cardinal (?), v. 268.
- Persecution, iii. 401, 488, v. 286, 301; of French Protestants, v. 5.
- Perseverance, iii. 229.
- 'Persanes, Lettres,' Montesquieu's, iii. 1 n.
- Persia, iii. 82, 133; a bride in, iii. 137; love and marriage in, iii. 136, 412; the magians of, iii. 57 n.; slavery in, iii. 221.
- Persians, the, iii. 16, 36, 47, 127, 417; an army of, iii. 76; their prophet, Haly, iii. 417.
- Perspicuity, ii. 359.
- Perspiration, iv. 357.
- Pertness, in novels, iii. 199; and humour, iii. 202.
- Pert writing of the French, iii. 294.
- Peruvians, iii. 127.
- 'Peruvienne, Lettres d'une,' Madame de Graigny's, iii. 1 n.
- Pervia Virtuti, iii. 119.
- Pery, Edm. Sexton, his (?) 'Armenian in Ireland,' iv. 285 n.
- Pest-houses, temp. plague of London, v. 195.
- Peter the Great, i. 300, iii. 211, 232, 233 n., 236, 398 n., iv. 383; his seamen, ii. 404; and Russia, iii. 326; and Siberia, iii. 309.
- Peterborough, iv. 30.
- Petit, Anthony, i. 424.
- Petronius, iv. 142.
- 'Phanor; or the Butterfly Pursuit,' 1758, iv. 429.
- (cross-references), iv. 427, 458.
- Pharaoh, game, iv. 79.
- 'Philanthrope,' iv. 182 n.
- Philip, the physician, and Alexander, i. 333.
- Philip II. of Spain, iii. 401.
- Philips, Ambrose, iv. 423; his Epistles to Dorset, v. 156.
- Philips, John, iv. 423, v. 344; his 'Splendid Shilling,' v. 158, 344.

- Philippine Islands, marriage in, iii. 420.
- Philomel, ii. 50, l. 115.
- Philosopher, a, ii. 334, iii. 69, 162; a practical, ii. 334; the, iii. 167, 476, 490; the Indigent. *See* Indigent; the task of, iii. 527; and sensuality, v. 110.
- Philosophers, iii. 465; the age of, iii. 475; English, v. 334; moral, a society of, i. 257; their rules, i. 258; practical, ii. 330; ridiculous stories of, iii. 61.
- Philosophic Cobbler, History of a, iii. 243; misery, iii. 343; vagabond, the, i. 16.
- Philosophical pretenders, iii. 375.
- 'Philosophical Dictionary.' Voltaire's, translation from, ii. 410.
- Philosophy, ii. 149, 334, iii. 178, 433; English, v. 346; Newton's, &c., abroad, ii. 321; world and book taught, iii. 250; the consolations of, i. 209; a little, ii. 237; refined, religion is, v. 260; study of, i. 336; of travel, iii. 32; and ambition, iii. 490; and ignorance, v. 114; and the laws, iii. 488; and passion, iii. 137; and religion, ii. 411; and happiness, ii. 435.
- 'Philosophy, History of,' Formey's, Goldsmith's translation, i. 483, iv. 356 n.
- Phlegmatic men, iv. 149; natures, iv. 8.
- Physic, the business of, iv. 87; Chinese, iii. 257.
- Physiognomy, i. 250, v. 201; Fielding on, v. 202; Montaigne on, v. 202.
- 'Physiognomy, On,' from Nicetus, v. 413 n.
- Physician, the, and the quack, i. 424; Goldsmith as a physician, i. 15, 16, 23, 36, 63, 430, 446, iii. 253, iv. 273.
- Physicians, iii. 192; College of, ii. 214 n.
- Piccadilly, Duchess of, iii. 205.
- Pichromachus on Ennui, iv. 500.
- Pickpockets, ii. 77, l. 35.
- Picts, Scots, &c. iv. 438.
- Picture, the "historical," of the Vicar's family, i. 133; buying, the art of, i. 165; frames, list, ii. 82.
- Pictures framed with silk, &c., i. 440; improving their tints, i. 166; "taste," &c., i. 105, 107; teaching by means of, v. 74.
- Piety and love, in Italy, ii. 11, l. 151.
- 'Piety in Pattens,' Foote's, ii. 115 n.
- Pig and priests (a visitation dinner), iii. 218.
- Pigeon, the learned, of the Haymarket, v. 375.
- 'Pigeons, the Three,' inn, at Lissoy, and the "Three Jolly Pigeons" of 'She Stoops to Conquer,' ii. 40 n.
- Pig-tails, ii. 94, l. 27, 96, l. 26, iii. 19, 61; for the foot-guards, ii. 94, l. 26.
- Pilaw, the, iii. 125.
- Pilchards off Cornwall, v. 107.
- 'Pilgrim, The' = 'The Hermit' (Parnell's), iv. 176 n.
- Pilgrimages, &c., among the Saxons, v. 269.
- Pilkington, Jack, and Goldsmith, i. 38 n.; story of the white mice, iii. 187 n.
- Pillory, the, ii. 476 n., 477.
- Pimping and pedigree, a taste for, i. 160.
- Pimple (Lady's maid), ii. 257.
- Pincushion-makers, i. 291.
- Pindar, i. 361, iv. 296; in Elysium, iv. 488; his songs, i. 393.
- Pindaric odes, ii. 4.
- Pinks and Wood, their 'History of Clerkenwell,' ii. 468 n.
- "Pin-money," iii. 414.
- Pins, crooked, vomiting, i. 283, ii. 477.
- Pinto, Mr., violinist of T. R. D. L., &c., iv. 505 n.
- Pinto, Mrs. = Miss Brent, *which see.*

- Pinwire, of Newcastle (a runner), i. 218.
- Piozzi, Mrs., i. 20, her story of Goldsmith on the first night of 'Good-Natured Man,' ii. 214 n.
- Pipe and tabor, i. 84.
- Pippit, the, v. 229.
- Pirates, Lucy Lovewell and the, v. 381; of the Wolga, iii. 349; History of the, i. 317.
- Piratical publishers in Ireland, i. 434, 441.
- Pire, Marchioness de, and Voltaire, iv. 21.
- Piron, Alexis, iii. 494, iv. 22, 23, 479; and the French Academy, iii. 494; his hoax upon Voltaire, iv. 23.
- Pitt. *See also* Chatham, v. 412 n.
- Pitt, Mrs., actress, ii. 146.
- Pity, human, ii. 348; and friendship, ii. 344.
- Places, quarrelling for, ii. 232.
- Plagiarism, on charges of, iv. 375.
- Plagiarism, charges against Goldsmith, i. 66; in the case of Byron's 'Tom the Porter,' iii. 22; from Collins, ii. 105, 106; in the 'Haunch of Venison,' ii. 50; from 'The Humorist,' ii. 438; from Sir William Temple, ii. 155; as regards Young, ii. 24; W. H. O.'s accusation, v. 409; a defence, ii. 400 n.: *See also* 'Edwin and Angelina.'
- Plague, the, iii. 250 n.; of London, 1665, v. 195, 333.
- Plantations, the voluntary (English) slaves for, i. 162.
- Planters, sold to the, iii. 431.
- Plants, circulation of their sap, v. 123; sex in, v. 126.
- Plato, iii. 217, 239, iv. 362, 369; his metaphors, i. 362, 364; his system of morals, v. 344; on happiness, ii. 436; on the soul, iv. 394, 401; and Homer, i. 344.
- Platonists, the, v. 145.
- Plaustral, iii. 323.
- Plautinus and Musidorus, the story of, iv. 510.
- Plautus, iv. 283, 427; his poverty, iii. 314.
- Play, first night of a, ii. 148.
- 'Player, the adventures of a,' i. 290.
- Players, strolling, i. 146, 154, 167, 294, iv. 91; their luxuriousness, iii. 538; their position, iii. 538; their war with the 'Rosciad,' iii. 406 *See also* Acting, &c.
- Play-going, ii. 291.
- Playhouse, the, pit, boxes, &c., iii. 77. *See also* Theatre.
- Plays, Chinese and English, iii. 76; old, undue patronage of, iii. 518; "by Royal command," ii. 241 n.; the licenser of, iii. 517, 536; the liking for, v. 173 n.; a plea for new, iii. 536; two by Goldsmith missing, i. 171, 471; and actors, iii. 517.
- Please, attempting to, ii. 213, iii. 230.
- Pleasing, the, and the beautiful, iii. 289.
- Pleasure, the capacity of receiving, iii. 534; he who finds a new, iii. 43; is in us, ii. 334; a life of, iii. 168; the man of, iii. 167, iv. 42; the pursuit of, iii. 166, 527, iv. 5; the reign of, ii. 42, l. 319; toiling, ii. 40, l. 262; where it is sold, iv. 7; a woman of, iii. 227; and pain, iv. 240-1; and study, iii. 310.
- "Pleasure Stage Coach," the, ii. 389; are all of the senses, iii. 30; fashionable, iv. 499; old and new, iv. 350; public and private, iii. 518.
- Pliny, iii. 60, v. 69, 72, 121; translation from, v. 192; Goldsmith and, v. 182 n., 188, 192, 233.
- Pliny the younger, i. 335.
- "Pluck'd his gown, to share the good man's smile," ii. 38, l. 184.
- Plume, Professor, i. 418.
- Plutarch, iv. 319; his Lives, i. 334; Montesquieu on, v. 66.
- 'Plutarch's Lives' (preface), 1762, v. 65.

- 'Plutarch's Lives' (notes), i. 452, 453, 478.
 Plymouth, the water-women of, i. 318.
 "Po, wandering," ii. 6, l. 2.
 Poaching, iii. 205, 430.
 Pocket-holes, laced, iii. 263.
 Pocket-money of the Vicar's daughters, i. 107.
 Poems, inflated with metaphor, &c., i. 362.
 Poems, attributed to Goldsmith, v. 410.
 Poems, Goldsmith's early, i. 407 n.
 'Poems for Young Ladies, A Collection of' (preface), 1766, v. 150.
 — (notes), i. 30, ii. 20, 22.
 'Poesy, English, Beauties of' (preface and criticisms), 1767, v. 153.
 — (note on), iii. 509.
 'Poesy, The Progress of,' Gray's, iv. 296.
 Poet, being a, i. 451; a born, iv. 5; character of a, iii. 313; a corporation, iii. 404; a small, iv. 379; the, iii. 476, 491, iv. 335, v. 61; the conscientious, ii. 113; his fate, iii. 504, iv. 372; his "feigning," v. 160; his friend should be as secret as his confessor, iv. 169; Goldsmith's experiences as a, ii. 451; the poor, ii. 408, iii. 112, 383, iv. 331: *See also* Scroggen; while living, iv. 159; "writing from the heart," v. 159; and nature, v. 62.
 Poetasters, ii. 77, l. 35.
 'Poetical Balance, The.' *See* 'Poetical Scale.'
 Poetical fame, ii. 3.
 'Poetical Dictionary, A' (Preface), 1761, v. 60.
 — (notes on), i. 22, iv. 154.
 Poetical license, i. 363.
 'Poetical Scale, A,' 1758, iv. 417.
 — (notes), iv. 513.
 — (criticism), i. 408.
 — (cross-references), iv. 334, 375, 381, 456, 457, 499.
 'Poetical Scale, Sequel to the,' iv. 423.
 — (notes on) iv. 514, v. 306, 325.
 Poetry, iii. 152, iv. 296, v. 60; kinds of, iv. 338; ancient and modern, v. 210; English, iii. 512, 513, 514, 516, iv. 335, 355, v. 62; early English, iv. 440; extracts and collections of, v. 63; Gray's school of, iv. 296: *See also* Gray, &c.; modern, iii. 358; obsolete forms of, v. 157; pastoral, v. 157; Pope's and Goldsmith's school of, i. 53; rule taught, iii. 472; Scandinavian, iv. 233; without versification, i. 353; affectation in, i. 380; the earliest art, iii. 470; taste in, i. 98, ii. 4; mere, out of place in tragedy, iv. 426; neglect of, ii. 451; origin of, v. 151; the pathetic in, iii. 129; patronage of, iii. 129; study of, v. 255; was before religion, i. 341; Aristotle on, i. 340; and business, ii. 168; and dancing, early, i. 342; and eloquence, i. 341; and music and dancing, iv. 296; and nature, i. 339; and painting, iv. 243; and passion, i. 378; and praise, iii. 114; and prose, iii. 114, 153, iv. 446, v. 61; and religion, v. 61, 151.
 Poetry, Goldsmith's, i. 53; his abandonment of it, i. 28; his corrections of it, i. 27, ii. 10, 20 (*see also* Variations); his farewell to it, ii. 44, l. 407. *See also* the separate poems, &c.
 'Poetry, The Art of' (attributed to Goldsmith), i. 22, ii. 337, v. 409, 412.
 'Poetry, Essay on,' the Duke of Buckingham's, v. 161.
 'Poetry, On, as Distinguished from other Writing,' 1761-3, i. 352.
 'Poetry, The Origin of,' 1761-3, i. 341-51.
 'Poetry and Taste, The Mansions of,' 1760, iv. 486.

- Poets, ancient and modern, ii. 168 ; English, i. 54 n. ; ii. 145, iii. 152, 315, iv. 172, 335, 417, 423 ; old English, imitation of, v. 155 ; English, Voltaire on, v. 152 ; Greek, i. 350 ; innovating, iii. 512 ; modern, ii. 87, l. 2 ; poor, ii. 47, l. 31 : *See also* Genius, neglected, &c. ; small, ii. 416 ; the age of, iii. 475 ; in disguise, iii. 152 ; were the first historians, v. 170 ; their illusions, i. 394 ; their places in the Temple of Fame already filled, iii. 284 ; praising actors, iii. 318 ; and historians, iv. 280 ; and poverty, iii. 313 ; and the real poet, i. 158 ; neglected, iv. 487.
- Poet's Corner, iii. 49.
- 'Poet's Garden, The History of a,' i. 394.
- 'Poets, Lives of the,' Anderson's, iv. 295 ; Johnson's, iv. 156, 178 ; Shiel's (or Th. Cibber's), i. 301. *See also* Johnson, &c.
- Poggi, the Florentine, on death, iv. 134.
- "Poison, may this be my," ii. 49, l. 91, ii. 227, iii. 22, iv. 464.
- Poland, iii. 160 ; and England, v. 22 ; Goldsmith in (?), ii. 319 n. ; music of, i. 387 ; the Reformation in, ii. 478.
- Pole, Cardinal, iv. 447, 448.
- Poles, the [temp. "Seven Years' War"], v. 50 ; condition of the, ii. 319.
- Policy, i. 271.
- Polignac, Cardinal de, iv. 8, 10, 265, 269 n. ; his 'Anti-Lucretius,' iv. 10, 265 ; and Bayle, iv. 265 ; and Voltaire, iv. 8, 10.
- Polite, the, ii. 329, iii. 10, 128, 340, 374 ; and the vulgar, ii. 424 ; and religion, ii. 425 ; and the savage, iii. 41 ; arts, iii. 129, 534.
- Polite kingdom, a, iv. 51 ; learning and science, iii. 476 ; literature, i. 341 ; writing for the, ii. 364 ; very, conversation, iii. 201.
- 'Polite Learning in Europe, An Enquiry into the Present State of,' 1759, iii. 461.
- (notes), i. 18, 437, 441, 446, 447, 487, ii. 75, iii. 462, 475, 503, 508, 525, 529, v. 462, 529, 539.
- its purpose, iii. 512, 521, 533, 538, 539.
- (criticism of), i. 407, iii. 503, iv. 350.
- (cross-references to), iv. 8, 12, 23, 43, 44, 365, 422, v., 34, 157, 158.
- Politeness, i. 301, iv. 71 ; English and French, iii. 23 ; and ceremony, iii. 147.
- 'Politeness, Progress of, Rules for a Russian Assembly,' i. 299.
- 'Politeness, True,' 1760, v. 413 n.
- Political affairs, i. 320 ; economy, Goldsmith's, i. 55 ; history, v. 263 ; thinking (Addison's), v. 156 ; world, the, ii. 414.
- 'Political Frugality, Upon,' 1759, ii. 379.
- Politician, a, iii. 90.
- Politicians, the English are all, iii. 21 ; ill-boding, iii. 384 ; short-sightedness of, iii. 275 ; their trade, iv. 489.
- Politics, ii. 32, 237 ; Goldsmith's, i. 315, 321, 462, ii. 17, l. 375, 49, iv. 180, 189, v. 176, 406 ; transitory, iv. 409 ; English passion for, iii. 24.
- 'Politics, The Lilliputian System of,' v. 405.
- Politics, teaching, v. 254 ; and ceremony, iii. 380 ; and party, ii. 4, v. 67 ; and religion, v. 260.
- Polnitz, Baron, iv. 42.
- Polly and the Pickpocket. *See* Pollys, the rival.
- Pollys, the rival ('Beggars' Opera'), iii. 294 n., 295, 317.
- Polybius, iv. 255, v. 140.
- Polydorus, the Cretan, iv. 430.
- Polypus, the, v. 118, 244.
- Pomfret, i. 64 n.

"Pomp, cumbrous," ii. 35, l. 66.

Pomp and power, ii. 98, l. 6.

Pompadour, Madame de, iii. 28, iv. 464; and Voltaire, iv. 39.

"Pomposo" = Dr. Johnson, ii. 474 n.

Pont-neuf, the, school of music, i. 388.

Poor, the, ii. 314, 426, iii. 271, 341, v. 205, 359, 362; affecting the manners of the rich, ii. 395; bounty to, ii. 102, l. 143; calamities of, iii. 134; in the clothes of their betters, v. 253; distresses of, iii. 428; their happiness is ignorance, iii. 307; helping the, v. 395; laws oppressive to, iii. 299; the miseries of, i. 211; monarchy the best government for, i. 167; provision for, iii. 96; put on appearances, i. 107; religion most needed by, ii. 425; sending them to America, iii. 64; serving the, ii. 355; in society, i. 261; struggles of, iii. 244; the poor man in heaven, i. 210; better be poor than seem poor, ii. 343, 348; but not modest, i. 294; relations and guests, and how to get rid of them, i. 72; the cow and, v. 212; and the hospitals, v. 176 n.; and luxury, iii. 43 n.; and the rich, i. 150, 210, 281, ii. 18, l. 386, v. 214; combinations of rich and poor advisable, i. 119; and the Vicar, i. 79, 187. *See also* under Beggars, Houseless, Luxury, Rich, &c. &c.

"Poor Poll," epitaph on Goldsmith, several versions and accounts of, ii. 51 n.

"Poor's decay, the," ii. 41, l. 266.

Pope, the, ii. 411.

Pope, A., ii. 389, iii. 49, 202 n., iv. 27, 160, 164, 173, 366, 418, v. 346; criticised, i. 130; defence of, iv. 295; quoted, i. 257, iii. 220; his inscription on

the Bath obelisk, iv. 111; Bolingbroke's works burnt by him, iv. 227 n.; his want of candour and sincerity, iv. 169; his Correspondence, contradiction in, *see* under Gay quoted; his 'Eloisa to Abelard,' v. 156; his epigram on Ralph Allen, iv. 106 n.; his letters to Beau Nash, iv. 109; his letters to Parnell, iv. 160; his Homer, i. 355, 164, 169, 178, 295; his melancholy at Binfield, iv. 165; his 'Miscellany' and its contributors, iv. 170; his 'Of the Use of Riches,' v. 157; his 'Ode on St. Cecilia's Day,' v. 156; his assistance to Parnell, v. 155; his edition of Parnell, iv. 162, 164; his obligations to Parnell, iv. 162; his and Goldsmith's school of poetry, i. 53; his pride, iv. 110; his 'Rape of the Lock,' iv. 175, v. 154; his 'Temple of Fame,' iv. 177; to Swift, on Bolingbroke, &c., iv. 211, 215, 216; on dictionary makers, iv. 313; on poor authors, iii. 507 n.; on the Thames, i. 371, 372; on Vida, ii. 117 n.; Voltaire on, iv. 31; and Bolingbroke, iv. 422 n.; and the critics, iii. 408; and Dryden, i. 54, ii. 445; and Lord Lansdown, iv. 422 n.; Newton, and Beau Nash, Chesterfield's (?) epigram on, iv. 111; and Parnell, iv. 160, 166, iv. 177, 420; and Sheffield, Duke of Buckinghamshire, iv. 420; and Walsh, iv. 420; and Wycherley, iv. 420; and Voltaire, iv. 30.

'Pope, To Mr.,' Parnell's, iv. 175. Pope v. Gay, lines variously attributed. *See* Gay quoted.

Popery, the furious spirit of, v. 6; and Queen Mary, iv. 447.

Popes, the, and early English clergy, v. 274, 280; Bower's History of the, ii. 55 n.

Populace, the, iii. 450.

- Popular discontent, iii. 369.
 Popularity and fame, ii. 392.
 Porcupine, the paradox writer likened to a, i. 157.
 Porée, Father, iv. 4, 5.
 Porphyrogeneta, Constantine, iii. 477.
 Port St. Philip, surrender of, to the French, iv. 466.
 Porter, a, iii. 21; the surly, ii. 36, l. 105.
 Porter, London, iii. 210, iv. 413 n.
 Portland, Duchess of, i. 38 n.
 Portrait painter, a travelling, i. 133. * * Mr. E. Ford has a well supported theory that the original of the Vicar's portrait painter was no other than G. Romney.
 Portraits of Goldsmith, i. 62 n.; one by himself, i. 448.
 Ports, ii. 109.
 Portugal and England, v. 24.
 Portuguese, the, iii. 25, 27.
 Porus v. Montezuma, hoax upon Goldsmith, v. 172 n.
 Post, cross, system, invented by Ralph Allen, iv. 107 n.
 Posterity, drawing upon, i. 247; Goldsmith's address to, ii. 363.
 Potatoes, Lady Jones's (Goody Two-Shoes), bequest of, v. 397.
 Poulter, *alias* Baxter (highwayman), and Nash, iv. 114, 154 n.; his account of cheating with the "old Nob," iv. 116; his 'Discoveries' of gamblers, thieves, &c., iv. 114.
 Poverty, iii. 102; alleged beauty of, iii. 251, 252; the delights of, i. 292, &c., Goldsmith's, i. 19, 433; *See also under* Debts, &c., Goldsmith's; the nurse of genius, i. 157; privations and blessings of, ii. 12, l. 209; they who deserve, i. 92; and authorship, i. 430, iii. 313; *See also* Poets, &c.; and merit, i. 449; and vice, iii. 30.
 Powder, wearing, iii. 19. *See also* Face-powder.
 Powell, actor, ii. 146.
 Powell, the fire-eater, iv. 331.
 Power, systems of, v. 51.
 Power, Francis, and Co., v. 407 n.
 Pow-wow = Wow-wow (?), iv. 474 n.
 Poyer, Colonel, iv. 55.
 Poynings Act, iv. 285. * * This act was a statute of Hen. VII. "to establish English jurisdiction in Ireland. Its name came from Sir Edward Poynings, the then Governor-General of Ireland.
 Prade, Abbé, ii. 318; and the Sorbonne, iii. 495.
 Prague University, iii. 523.
 Praise, i. 297; in epitaphs, iii. 46; the want of, i. 298; and censure, v. 17.
 "Praise, the avarice of," in France, ii. 14, l. 264.
 Prayer, Common, the translation of James I., iv. 552. *See also* Liturgy.
 Preacher, a popular, iii. 518; the village, ii. 37, l. 140.
 Preachers, French, i. 272; Methodist, i. 273.
 Preaching, popular, i. 270, ii. 420; Parnell's taste for, iv. 172 n.; the "mob places" for, *ib.*; and writing, iii. 283.
 Precedent, government by, iii. 437.
 Preceptors, advice of, v. 65.
 'Prefaces' and 'Introductions,' v. i. *et seq.*
 Preferment of undeserving persons, the, iv. 381.
 Prejudice, v. 239.
 'Prejudices, On National,' 1760, i. 320.
 Presbyterians, the, and Cardinal Richelieu, v. 320; and the Great Rebellion, v. 327.
 Present, the, iii. 282; enjoying, iii. 166.
 'Preserver, The Complete' (of fruits, &c.), iv. 118.
 Press, the, iii. 216; "errors of," iii. 112; Goldsmith's letter on

- its licentiousness, i. 35; importance of, iii. 216; and patronage, ii. 444.
- 'Press, Mistakes of the,' Whitfoord's, ii. 60, l. 24.
- Press-gang, the, iii. 431, 432.
- Presumption, The Genius of, iii. 140.
- Pretence, the age of, ii. 92, l. 15.
- Pretender, the, his intrigues with Bolingbroke, &c., iv. 196, 216; his "ministry" in France, iv. 198.
- 'Pretty Plaything, A.,' v. 356 n.
- 'Pretty Poems for the Amusement of Children Three Feet High,' v. 356 n.
- Priam, ii. 50, l. 110.
- Pride, i. 476, ii. 7, l. 38, 348, iii. 230, 287, 313, v. 255; beggar, ii. 14, l. 277; Middle Class, iv. 514 n.; ragged, ii. 17, l. 363; increased by loss of fortune, i. 74; nothing debases so much as, iv. 124; and friendship, iv. 511; and laughter, ii. 436.
- 'Pride and Luxury of the Middling Class of People,' 1758, ii. 431.
- 'Pride, On,' 1760, v. 413 n.
- Priest, a, i. 67.
- Priest-God (Lama), making a, iii. 280.
- Priests, iii. 40; European, iii. 160; in Sweden, ii. 330. *See also* Church, Clergy, Monastery, Monks, &c.
- Prig, a, iii. 328.
- Primate (painter), i. 390.
- Primero (game), i. 289, iv. 79.
- Primrose, George, the Vicar's son, i. 153; his adventures, i. 155 *et sq.*
- Prince, a young, iii. 180.
- Prince George, iii. 110 n.
- 'Prince Titi.' *See* 'Titti, Prince.'
- Princes, European, iii. 160; education of, ii. 332; and lords, ii. 34, l. 53.
- Princess, the, and the Pearl Diver, story, iii. 329.
- Principles not persons, iv. 436.
* * Cf. "Measures not Men,"
* * 'Good-Natured Man,' act ii.
- Printer, the (?), of 'Goody Two-Shoes,' v. 403.
- Printers and booksellers, early, in England, iv. 443.
- Printing, introduction of, iii. 479; introduced to England by Henry VI. and Archbishop Bourchier, iv. 442; Caxton, iv. 442.
- Printing House of the University of Dublin, iv. 287.
- Print-seller, a, ii. 431.
- Print-shops, heads in the, ii. 210, iii. 393. * * At the last reference it may be that Bowles's famous print-shop, 67, St. Paul's churchyard, next door but one to Newbery's, is described.
- Prior, the, and the injured husband, story of, i. 281.
- Priors of convents, i. 279.
- Prior, Sir James, his 'Life' and 'Works of Goldsmith,' 1837, i. 331, 346, 406, 410, 464, 479, ii. 61, 93, 457, iii. 71, 378, iv. 48, 60, 232, 247, 303, 344, 356, 357, 405, 407, 409, 416, 471, 505, 509, 513, 515, v. 3, 7, 67, 171, 173, 182, 204, 408, 410, 412.
- Prior, Matthew, ii. 445, 450, iv. 418, 420, v. 346; his 'Alma,' v. 161; his 'Hans Carvel' and the 'Ladle' in Goldsmith's 'Beauties of English Poesy,' i. 29, v. 150, 153, 159; and Bolingbroke, iv. 193, 195.
- Prison, a debtors', iii. 21; in, iii. 104; riot and laughter in, i. 188; the Vicar in, i. 188.
- Prisoner, the old, asking to end his days in prison, iii. 277.
- Prisons, English and foreign, iii. 341; state of the, i. 197. *See also* Penal laws, &c.
- Privateering, iii. 86, 433.
- Prizes, literary, iii. 502.
- Probability, the Genius of, iii. 140.
- Proctors, college, ii. 84.

- Prodigal, the, are ever flatterers, iv. 113; and the miser, ii. 387.
 'Prodigal Son,' Voltaire's, ii. 341.
 Prodigality, ii. 355.
 Prodigies, of parts, iv. 158; youthful, i. 327, v. 199. *See also* Monsters, Shows, &c.
 Profession, choosing a, iii. 230; those who think they are above their profession are below it, iv. 31.
 Professors, iv. 356.
 Profound, passion for being deemed, iii. 498.
 Projectors, i. 315, ii. 376. *See also* Discoverers, &c.
 'Prologue by Laberius,' 1759, ii. 75.
 — (cross-reference), iii. 462.
 'Prologue to Zobeide,' 1771, ii. 95.
 Prologues and epilogues, ii. 213.
 Pronunciation, iv. 314.
 Propagation of the human species, Marshal Saxe on, iv. 264 n.
 Property, earliest tenure of, iii. 451; laws for protecting, i. 198; its long continuance in one channel an evil, v. 9; security of, iii. 188, 361; and laws, iii. 299, 306; and liberty, iii. 433, 449.
 Proposals for publishing, i. 157.
 Prose, figures in, i. 371; Goldsmith's, and his corrections of it, i. 26, 52; and poetry, iii. 153, 470, iv. 446.
 Prosopopœia, in poetry, i. 357, 372.
 Prostitutes in London, iii. 33, 36.
 Protestant, a true, iv. 266; officers of James II., iii. 456; religion, the, ii. 426.
 'Protestant, Memoirs of A' (preface), 1758, v. 3.
 — (note), i. 18.
 Protestants, French, persecution of, under Louis XIV., v. 5; of Ireland, cruelties of the Catholics to, temp. siege of Derry, v. 336; burning, &c., of, temp. Mary, v. 301.
 Proud man, the, v. 371; the poor, iv. 511.
 Proverbs, v. 376; those of Goody Two Shoes, v. 364.
 Providence, the designs of, v. 111; its equal dealings, i. 208; no circumstances are so desperate which it may not relieve, ii. 316; the wisdom of, i. 263.
 'Provoked Husband,' Vanbrugh's, ii. 145 n., iv. 428.
 Prudence, i. 123, ii. 376, iii. 30, 229, 313; dispassionate, iii. 501; at seventy-two, i. 77; want of, cancels every other virtue, iv. 98; and genius, iv. 43; and knowledge, iv. 6; and virtue, i. 199.
 Prudent blockhead, a, iii. 104.
 Prudery rebuked, iii. 329.
 Pruriency, fashionable, iii. 200.
 Prussia, v. 25, 33; temp. "Seven Years' War," v. 34; her desire to become a maritime power, v. 37; the king of: *See* Frederick, &c.; and Germany, v. 34.
 Prussian armies, iii. 448.
 Prussians, the, iii. 25, 28.
 Psalms, the, i. 353.
 Psellus, Michael, iii. 477.
 Public, the, iv. 406; a many-headed monster, i. 167.
Public Advertiser ii. 59, 60; Panurge and Anti-Sejanus of the, ii. 49 n.
 Public-houses and misery, ii. 385; regulation of, *ib.*
Public Intelligencer, L'Estrange's, ii. 445 n.
Public Ledger, the, i. 19, 238, 323, ii. 457, 473, iii. 1, 256, 260, 373, 377, iv. 153, 412, 465, 468, 471, 473, v. 353, 406; Goldsmith's contributions to, i. 19, iv. 28, 416, 468, 471. * * Since these volumes went to press, Mr. C. Welsh's 'A Bookseller of the Last Century' shows that B. Collins originated the *Public Ledger*, and that he owned it in partnership with John Newbery.

- Public men who are not known, Johnson on, ii. 55 n.
- Publishers, ii. 305 ; piratical, in Ireland, i. 434, 441.
- Publishing, proposals for, i. 157.
See also under Booksellers.
- 'Pucelle d'Orleans,' Voltaire's, ii. 342, iv. 46 n.
- Pugilism, women fights, i. 318.
- Pulpit, mediocrity in the, i. 271.
See also Preaching, &c.
- Pulteney, Earl of Bath, iv. 184 n. ; and the 'Craftsman,' iv. 213.
- Puma, the, iv. 260 n.
- Punch (drink), i. 258, ii. 236, iv. 463. * * * Punch was introduced about 1690. Rum punch came first, from Jamaica. Then brandy punch, or arrack, came from the East Indies. A kind of arrack, made with green tea, was called tea punch, and was popular at Vauxhall. *See Notes and Queries*, 6th series, xii. 282.
- Punch (show), i. 292.
- Punishment by law, i. 191, 197.
- Punishments, barbarous, iii. 349 ; and rewards, iii. 272. *See also* Penal-laws.
- Punning, by James I., &c., iv. 459.
- Puppet-show, a, i. 291, 292.
- Purcell, i. 388, 389.
- Purdon, Edward, i. 249 n., iv. 462 n. ; his translation of Voltaire's 'Henriade,' ii. 91 n., iv. 2, 3, 35 n. ; and Goldsmith, iv. 2 n., v. 204 n.
- 'Purdon, Edward, Epitaph on,' 1767 (?), ii. 91.
- (cross-references to), iv. 35, v. 204.
- Puritans, the, iv. 460.
- Purse, a weasel-skin, is lucky, i. 117.
- Pym, Mr., v. 321.
- Pyrrhus and Fabricius, i. 335.
- Pyrrhus = Frederick the Great, ii. 317.
- Pythagoras, iii. 239, iv. 430 ; disciples of, i. 253.
- Pytheas, iii. 344.
- Quack, on a, ii. 390 n. ; the, and the physician, i. 424 ; doctors, iii. 88.
- Quackery of learning, the, v. 132.
- Quacks, ii. 213 ; ridiculed, iii. 253.
- Quadrupeds, v. 217 ; and their way of living, v. 76.
- Quail, the, v. 221.
- Qualities that wear well, i. 71.
- Quality, surfeited with, i. 257.
- Quamsi, iii. 20, 118, 126.
- Quebec, conquest of, iv. 462 n.
- 'Quebec, On the Taking of,' stanzas, 1759, ii. 78.
- (cross-reference to), iv. 462.
- Queen Mab speech in Shakspeare, i. 381.
- Queen's Menagerie, Buckingham-gate, Goldsmith there, v. 212 n.
- Queensberry, Duchess of, and Beau Nash, iv. 69.
- Quenault, Marquis of. *See* Scarron.
- Question and answer, teaching by, v. 165, 254.
- Questions and Commands (game), i. 111, 300, 334.
- Quick, John, actor, ii. 95 n., 146, 215, 217, 295, 300 n. ; his 'Whim,' ii. 300 n. ; as Tony Lumpkin, ii. 271 n., 288 n. ; and Goldsmith, ii. 300 n., iv. 483 n., 505 n.
- Quickly, Dame, i. 277.
- Quin, actor, and Nash, iv. 126, 127 n.
- Quintilian on hyperbole, i. 378, 379.
- Quotation marks in 18th Century Books, i. 341 n.
- Rabbit me ! ii. 177, 279.
- Rabble, the, i. 151, ii. 17, l. 366.
- Rabelais, i. 30 n., iii. 114, iv. 284 ; quoted, i. 252 ; Pope on, iv. 168.
- Rabener, G. W., iii. 490.

- 'Rabener's Satirical Letters' (criticism), 1757, iv. 283.
 Racan, Marquis de, anecdote of, iv. 278.
 Race-horse Childers, the, v. 211.
 Races, complexion, &c., of, v. 208.
 Races, the, i. 145, ii. 322, 431.
 * * Mr. Ford thinks Doncaster races were those visited by the Vicar, and that Goldsmith actually attended them when he visited Wakefield, and conceived the idea of his novel (about 1760).
 Racine, i. 372, iv. 40, 422; his *Athalie*, iii. 481.
 Racing, in Ireland, iii. 28; at Newmarket, iii. 29.
 Racket, Miss, i. 403.
 Radcliffe, Dr., i. 15, 434; his Library, iv. 343; and the Bath waters, and the Astrop (Northamptonshire) waters, iv. 64 n.
 Radford, Mr. Ernest, lines found by, and supposed to be by Goldsmith, v. 410.
 Rag-fair, a, i. 291 n.
 Raillery not natural to the English, ii. 437.
 'Raimond et Angeline' and Goldsmith's 'Edwin and Angelina,' ii. 30 n.
 Rainbows, circular, v. 194.
 Rake, "a travelling," iv. 492.
 'Rake's Progress,' Hogarth's, ii. 267.
 Raleigh, Sir W., ii. 363, iii. 454, v. 307, 309; burnt his MSS., ii. 363.
 Ralph, the raven, v. 375.
 Ralph, James, iv. 408 n.; his 'Case of Authors by Profession,' iii. 529 n.
 'Rambler, The,' i. 27, ii. 193 n., iv. 248.
 Rameau and his school of music, i. 386, 388, ii. 454.
 Ramilies wigs, iv. 87.
 Ramsey, his attack upon Voltaire, iv. 38.
 Ranelagh, ii. 246, iii. 148, 268 n.; Goldsmith at, v. 174 n.; a market for wives, i. 141; "scuffle," the, iv. 434; its songs, i. 140.
 Rank, iii. 450; duties of, iii. 180.
 Rant, a = (?) a "special edition" of a news-sheet, iv. 134.
 Raphael, his faces and draperies, ii. 324.
 "Raphaels, Correggios, and stuff," ii. 58, l. 145.
 Rapin, his *Hist. Eng.* v. 168.
 Rat-catcher in ordinary to his Majesty, iii. 346.
 Rattle, the agreeable, ii. 260.
 Rats in Chinese palaces, iii. 396.
 Raven, the, v. 224; his accomplishments and tricks, v. 224.
 Ravallac, Voltaire on, ii. 341.
 Ray, John, v. 70, 71, 186.
 Rayes, M. Hautes, iv. 346.
 Read, Mary, i. 317.
 Read, Sir William, the mountebank, iv. 125.
 Reade, Chas., his 'Wandering Heir,' iv. 103 n.
 Readers, indolent, iv. 255, 378.
 Reading, iii. 311; an epicure in, iii. 357; Goldsmith's reading, i. 453.
 Reading (Berks), Newbery and, v. 67 n., 68 n.; Smart, the poet and, v. 67 n.
 'Reading Mercury, The,' v. 67.
 Realism and imitation, i. 339.
 Reality and fancy, iv. 335.
 Reason follows sensation, iii. 42; listening to, ii. 161; and appetite, iii. 527; and instinct, ii. 77, l. 3; and irresolution, iii. 437; and man, v. 198; and the poor, i. 261; and religion, iv. 394, 401; and sensation, iv. 141; and wickedness, i. 271.
 Reasoning, much, and little meat, iii. 217; and story-telling, i. 280.
 Reaumur, R. A. F., v. 72.
 Rebellion, the great, iii. 455, v. 323; statesmen of, iv. 459.
 Receiving, ignominy of, iii. 366.
 Recitative, or chorus, in Greek Drama, i. 348.

- Reckoning, the (landlord's), i. 252; an inflamed, ii. 233.
- Recluse, folly of being, iii. 250.
- Rectitude, undeviating, i. 178.
- Red-breast, the, i. 98, v. 220, 234: *See also* Robin.
- 'Red Chamber Dreams, The,' Sir J. F. Davis's, iii. 150 n.
- Red Lion Street, Clerkenwell, ii. 463 n.
- Reed, Isaac, ii. 97, v. 3, 413 n.; his Goldsmith's collections, v. 7; the edition of Goldsmith's Essays, &c., attributed to him, iv. 410, 412, v. 413 n. *See also* Wright (Thos.) and Reed.
- Reeve, Mr. H., i. 23 n.
- Refinement, iii. 29.
- Refining, how Burke "went on refining," ii. 54, l. 35.
- Reflection, iii. 166.
- Reformation, alluding to, iv. 131; the laws should aim at, i. 197.
- the, iv. 444, v. 10, 291, 302; and the English language, v. 308; and superstition, ii. 459; in Germany, v. 293.
- Reformer, a, of our Church, i. 262; a, the fate of, iii. 496, iv. 12.
- Reformers, the English, iv. 445.
- Reforms, impracticable, iv. 435.
- Regenvolscius, Adrian, ii. 478.
- Regularity inculcated, v. 255.
- 'Rehearsal,' the, ii. 290 n., 306, iv. 373.
- Rejoicings, public, iii. 87.
- 'Rejoicings for Victory, Public,' 1759, iv. 462; (cross-references to), iii. 214, iv. 292, v. 8, 32.
- Relations, v. 358.
- Relics and ruins of great men and things, iv. 363.
- Religion, i. 67; in England, changed four times, temp. Hen. VIII. to Eliz., v. 304; in France, &c., i. 270, iii. 293; attacks upon, iii. 496; the consolations of, i. 209; contentions in, iii. 59; differences in, iii. 164; "disturbing," ii. 393; doing evil in, i. 174; enthusiasm in, ii. 426; the fables of, iii. 59; a lesson in, by Goody Two-Shoes, v. 365; old and new, i. 283; is most needed by the poor, ii. 425; is but philosophy refined, v. 260; poetry was before, i. 341; quarrels for, iii. 400; setting up a new, i. 257, iv. 11; and ceremony, iii. 380; and the English, iii. 22; and gaiety, iii. 400; and learning in Spain, iii. 487; and the lower class, i. 270; and poetry, v. 151; and politics, v. 260; and philosophy, ii. 411; reasoning and, iv. 394, 401; and the unhappy, i. 209.
- 'Religion, what will become of our?' iv. 465.
- Religions, different, iii. 84.
- 'Religious Courtship,' De Foe's, i. 97.
- Religious, enthusiasts, v. 5; principles, Goldsmith's, i. 49.
- Religious Tract Society, The, v. 408 n.
- Reluctance = repugnance, iii. 135.
- "Remains," iv. 248.
- Rent, "driving for," i. 184, 185.
- Repartee, ii. 85, l. 40, iii. 26.
- Repentant sinner, the, i. 143, 178.
- Repletion, deaths from, v. 204.
- 'Reply to an Invitation to Dinner at Dr. Baker's,' 1769 (?), ii. 93.
- Reports, alarmist, iii. 384.
- Repose, iii. 351.
- Reptiles, v. 110.
- Republic of Letters, the, ii. 305, 308, iii. 50, 73, iv. 19, 38, 331, 406. *See also* Literature, &c.
- Republics, iii. 188; Greek and Roman, v. 259; v. monarchies, v. 169, 310, 316.
- Reputation, i. 130, iii. 226, 348.
- Research may be too minute, iv. 239.
- Resentment, iii. 230, 446.
- Resignation, i. 331, ii. 36, l. 110; Sir J. Reynolds's picture of, ii. 36 n.; to the ills of life, i. 275.
- Respect, ii. 167; yourself, ii. 213.
- Restoration, the, v. 332.

- 'Retaliation,' 1774, ii. 51.
 — Garrick's replies to, ii. 57 n.
 — the lost part, ii. 52, 58 n.
 — the last half-line, ii. 58 n.
 — (notes on), i. 56, ii. 91, iv. 509, v. 175.
 Retirement, iv. 473.
 "Retirement, blest," ii. 36, l. 97.
 Retz, De, Cardinal, ii. 334; and Mazarine, ii. 335.
 Revelation, iv. 393, 401.
 Revellers, i. 92.
 Revelry, ii. 376, iii. 422.
 Revenge and patriotism, ii. 367.
 Reverence, i. 331. *See also* Subordination.
 "Reverend champion," the, ii. 38, l. 173.
 'Reverie, A,' 1759, ii. 388.
 Reviews, the, i. 148; temp. 1750, iv. 232 n. *See also* Magazines, &c., and 'Monthly Review,' and 'Critical Review.'
 Revolutions, the, of life, iii. 313.
 Reward, laws should, as well as punish, i. 191, 197.
 Rewards for the conviction of thieves, ii. 109.
 Reynolds, Miss, i. 460.
 Reynolds, Rev. Mr., iv. 306.
 Reynolds, Sir Joshua, i. 23, 37, 39, 40, 456, 461, 463, ii. 93, 131, 398; his 'Cleopatra,' and Kitty Fisher, i. 319 n.; a judge of poetry, ii. 31; his politics, ii. 31; his portraits, ii. 58, l. 142; his portraits of Goldsmith, i. 62 n.; his 'Resignation' from Goldsmith's 'Deserted Village,' ii. 36 n.; Goldsmith's dedication of the 'Deserted Village' to him, ii. 31, 138; Goldsmith's epitaph on, ii. 52 n., 53, l. 14, 58, l. 137; Goldsmith's letters to, i. 457, 458; Goldsmith's rebuke to, iv. 20 n.; A. Kauffman's portrait of him, ii. 95 n.; and Goldsmith, i. 47.
 Rheims, Godinot of, ii. 355.
 Rhetoric, ii. 407, iv. 347; and oratory, ii. 420.
 'Rhetoric,' Preface to, i. 481.
 Rhetorical figures, iii. 199.
 Rhyme and blank verse, iii. 512, 513; and number, i. 382; and rhythm, i. 382.
 Rhythm and rhyme, i. 382.
 Ribaldry and humour, i. 67.
 Ribbons (decorations of honour, &c.), iii. 241.
 Ricci, Matthew, and the Chinese astronomers, iii. 376.
 Riccoboni on the English stage, ii. 311.
 Rice and saffron, iii. 125.
 Rich, of Covent Garden Theatre, iii. 294 n.
 Rich, the, i. 292, iv. 398 n.; a Commonwealth the best government for, i. 167; and poor, i. 119, 150, 261, ii. 40, l. 251, 378, iii. 424, v. 213, 355. *See also* Riches, Luxury, the Poor, &c.
 Richard II., iv. 440.
 Richardson, Samuel, iii. 312 n.; Goldsmith possibly a pressreader for him, i. 15, 17 n., iii. 538 n., v. 404 n.; Young and, iv. 364, 367.
 Richelieu, ii. 411 n.; his intrigues with the Presbyterians, v. 320.
 Riches, iii. 69 n., 136, 313; the best, ii. 35, l. 62; in a country means freedom, i. 167; the increase of, ii. 343; superfluous, iii. 14; the use of, v. 395, 401; and literary reputation, iii. 214.
 'Riches and Happiness,' 1760, iv. 496.
 "Riches, the Landau of," ii. 389.
 Richland, Miss, ii. 156.
 Richmond, tea-drinking at, iv. 271, 413 n.
 Rickets, the two Miss, ii. 246.
 Ridge, Counsellor John, epitaph on, ii. 53, 58.
 Ridicule, iii. 18, ii. 329; Athenians fond of, i. 350; English much addicted to, i. 350; and enthusiasm, iii. 401.
 Ridiculous, being, iii. 207; the, and the serious, i. 196.

- Ridpath, ii. 450.
 Rigadon, or rigadoon (dance), ii. 298, 391, iii. 292.
 Right, the, and the expedient, ii. 53, l. 40; and wrong, ii. 212.
 Rigmarole, Mr., i. 279.
 Rinuccini (musician), i. 391.
 Riot and laughter in a prison, i. 188, 192.
 "Rising generation," the, ii. 401.
 'Rival Politicians' (criticism), iv. 233.
 Rivington, J. and F., publishers, v. 170 n.
 Rizzio, David, i. 388, 391.
 "Roast Beef of Old England," the song, ii. 453.
 Robber, the, ii. 377, iii. 422; generosity of the English, iii. 34; Goody Two-shoes and the, v. 370.
 Robin, the, is the Irish nightingale, ii. 141, v. 233 n.
 Robin Hood, ii. 366.
 'Robinson Crusoe,' i. 97.
 Rochefoucauld quoted, iii. 355.
 Rochester, Earl of (Wilmot), iv. 419.
 Rock, Dr. Richard, iii. 255, 410.
 'Roderick Random,' Smollett's, iv. 124.
 Rogers, S., i. 480 n.
 Rolle, Miss S., story of, iii. 224.
 Rolle, Mr., his fund bequeathed to Oxford University, iv. 316.
 Rollin, his Hist. Rome, v. 163.
 Rolly-Polly, game, iv. 80.
 Roman, laws, iii. 300; school of painting, i. 130; republic, v. 259. *See also* Rome.
 'Roman History, The' (preface), 1769, v. 162.
 — (notes on), i. 28, 485, 486, v. 166, 170, 173, 174.
 'Roman History,' abridgment for schools (advertisement), 1772, v. 165.
 — (notes, &c., on), i. 485.
 Romans, the, v. 164; their Amor Patriae, ii. 426; custom with, ii. 428; magnanimity of, i. 332; their story, i. 334.
 Romances, ii. 394, 405, iii. 311. *See also* Novels.
 'Romantic Love,' 1760, iv. 485.
 Rome, ii. 11, l. 159; ancient, iii. 190, v. 165; its decline, ii. 398, v. 307; early drama in, i. 346; the later empire, iii. 284; the forum, ii. 314; history of, v. 261; histories of, v. 163; the learning of, iii. 470; tombs at, ii. 314.
 Rome, the church of, v. 292.
 'Romeo and Juliet,' i. 381; played by strollers, i. 295.
 Romney, George. *See under* Portrait painter.
 Rooks, v. 220, 224; in the Temple Gardens, v. 224; and rich men, v. 365.
 'Rosciad,' Churchill's, iii. 295 n., 406.
 Rose, Dr., of Chiswick, iv. 407 n.
 Rosebud, the, ii. 80; Tasso on, ii. 326.
 Rosemary Lane, i. 291, 404.
 Rothelin, Charles de, iv. 269 n.
 Rothes, Dowager Countess of, i. 461.
 Rotterdam, ii. 385.
 Roubiliac, his statue of Handel, iii. 270 n.; and Goldsmith, i. 13 n., 389, iii. 394 n.
 Rouelle, G. F., iii. 493.
 Rouen, Goldsmith at, i. 438.
 Round-about, Lady Betty, iv. 472.
 Roundabout, Mrs., ii. 328.
 Round Robin to Dr. Johnson on Goldsmith's epitaph, i. 40 n.
 Rouse, Jane, burnt as a witch, i. 289.
 Rosseau, J. B., his odes, iv. 38; his attack upon Voltaire, *ib.*
 Rousseau, J. J., iii. 494, iv. 38; his 'Emilius,' ii. 400 n.; on civilization and barbarism, iii. 305 n.
 Rowe, N., i. 146, ii. 446, iv. 352, 418, 422, v. 346; song by him praised, v. 161.
 Royal Academy, establishment of, i. 27.

- "Royal Command" of plays, ii. 241 n.
 Royal Society, the, iii. 486; its explorations, ii. 95 n., iii. 389 n.; and Butler, iv. 369, 370 n.
 Royalty, addresses to, i. 304.
 Rubens, i. 390.
 "Ruffles to a man that wants a shirt," i. 456.
 Ruffs and fardingales, i. 277.
 Ruggins, old, the currycomb maker, ii. 161.
 Ruins and relics of great men, &c., iv. 363.
 Rules, critical, iv. 250; writing by, iii. 510.
 Rum punch. *See* Punch.
 Runfort, Miss Rachel, i. 403.
 Rupert, Prince, v. 323.
 Russel, Admiral, v. 338.
 Russia, its aggressive policy, iii. 325; assemblies in, i. 299; carpenters in, i. 300; drinking in, *ib.*; fashions in, i. 299; gaming in, i. 300; female knighthood in, iii. 398; Hingpo in, iii. 348; its military power, iii. 325; the navy of, i. 300; noblemen and workmen in, i. 300; the *Officina Gentium*, iii. 326; slavery in, iii. 236; state of, iii. 211; and China, iii. 374; and England, v. 22, 23 n.; and Prussia, v. 35; and Sweden, wars of, iii. 234; and Western Europe, iii. 325.
 Russians, the, iii. 509; their armies, iii. 448; marriage with them, iii. 72; their punishments for adultery, iii. 72.
 Russophobia, iii. 325 n., v. 23 n.
 Rustic, the patient, ii. 103, l. 159.
 Ryswick, treaty of, v. 341.

 S——, called "the good-natured man," ii. 212 n., iv. 92.
 S——, Miss Sylvia, story of, iv. 92.
 S——d, Miss, story of, iii. 224.
 'Sabinus and Olinda,' 1759, ii. 432.

 Sacerdotal instruction, iii. 284.
 Sack and sugar, i. 277.
 Sacrifices, human, among the Druids, v. 267.
 Saddles, side, iii. 121.
 Sadler's Wells, ii. 339, 291, iii. 80 n., v. 202 n.
 Saffron and rice, iii. 125.
 'Sagacity of Some Insects, The,' 1759, ii. 369.
 — (note on), i. 18.
 Sailor, the poor, and the Man in Black, iii. 96.
 Sailor's horse, the, i. 259.
 Sailors, hardships of, iii. 429.
 Saint, publisher of Newcastle, his Bewick books, v. 357.
 St. Catharine, Russian Order of, iii. 398.
 St. Catherine, ii. 419.
 St. Cyril, patriarch of Alexandria, ii. 350.
 Saint Foix, iii. 495, 496.
 St. Giles's, ii. 306, 347; watch-house, ii. 109.
 St. Gregory, i. 123; his friar in Dorsetshire, iii. 61.
St. James's Chronicle, Goldsmith's letter to, i. 453.
 St. James's Coffee House, ii. 52, l. 3; Goldsmith at, ii. 51 n.
St. James's Evening Post, defence (?) of Goldsmith there, v. 177 n.
St. James's Magazine, iv. 127 n.
 St. James's Park, i. 159, 249, 290, ii. 246, 324.
 St. James's Street, Thatched House Inn, i. 24.
 St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke. *See* Bolingbroke, Lord.
 St. John (temp. Cromwell), iv. 460.
 St. John of Jerusalem, Priory of, ii. 473 n.
 St. John's Church, Clerkenwell, ii. 468.
 St. John's Square, Clerkenwell, ii. 463, 468, 473 n.
 St. Martin's Lane, i. 249 n.
 St. Michael, Crooked Lane, i. 276 n.

- St. Pancras, London, iii. 442 ; its church, iii. 442.
- St. Patrick, and the frogs of Ireland, iv. 177.
- St. Paul's Cathedral, iii. 154 ; old, bells, &c., sold by the King, i. 289 ; captured flags in, iii. 155 ; music there, iii. 155 ; a service there, iii. 154.
- St. Paul's Churchyard. *See under* Print Shops, Bible and Sun, and Newbery.
- Saint-Pavin, Sonnet from, ii. 79.
- St. Real on History, iv. 217.
- St. Sepulchre's, Snow Hill, ii. 465 n. ; Parsons, the clerk of : *See* Cock Lane Ghost.
- Salamanders, the, fabulous and real, i. 277, v. 240.
- Salaries of court officials, iii. 396.
- Sale, George, iii. 508.
- Salisbury, Bishop of (?). *See* Ailsbury, Bishop of.
- Salisburys, the, iii. 452.
- Salkeld and Ventris, iii. 360.
- Sallust, i. 334, 335, iv. 388, v. 258.
- Sally, Crazy = Mrs. Map the bone-setter, iv. 433 n.
- Salmon, the, ii. 136.
- Salted provisions, ii. 405.
- Sanconiathon, Manetho, &c., i. 125, 255, iv. 308, 345, v. 133.
- Sanctorius, Venetian physician, iv. 357.
- Sanjapins, iii. 391.
- Sapphics, English, i. 385.
- Sappho, i. 335, 363.
- Saraband (dance), ii. 298.
- Saracens, the, in Antwerp, ii. 367.
- Sasarara, a, i. 171. * * According to Halliwell-Phillips a sasara is a hard knock ; Mrs. Thrale said the word was a corruption of the legal *certiorari*. The word now mostly applies to a loud "rat-tat," or footman's knock at a door.
- Satire, origin of, i. 345 ; and flattery, v. 17 ; and hyperbole, i. 381.
- 'Satirical Letters,' Rabener's (criticism), 1757, iv. 283.
- Saunders, actor, ii. 217, 294.
- Savage, man and animals, v. 77.
- Savage, Richard, ii. 451, iii. 508 ; his poems, v. 159.
- Savages, i. 299, iii. 10, 42, 211, 415, 527, iv. 259, v. 134, 198, 265 ; their love of finery, v. 202 ; the laws of, i. 198 ; worship of, i. 343 ; and the polite, iii. 41.
- Savile, Sir G., M.P. *See under* Wakefield.
- Saving, iii. 264 ; a saving wife, iii. 245.
- Saxe, Marshal, on officers and soldiers, iii. 448 ; on "propagation of the human species," iv. 264 n.
- Saxe's 'Art of War' (criticism), 1757, iv. 264.
- (notes on), iii. 448, iv. 233.
- Saxon Chronicle, The*, iv. 439.
- Saxon poem, Goldsmith in search of a, i. 463.
- Saxons, the, i. 198 ; and Danes, in Britain, v. 268 ; and Normans in England, iv. 439.
- Saxony, and the Seven Years' War, v. 49.
- 'Scacchiæ Ludus' (Game of Chess), Vida's, ii. 118 n. *See also* Vida, &c.
- Scacchis, the nymph, the Game of Chess given to her, ii. 118, 134.
- Scale, for computing abilities, iii. 9. *See also* 'Poetical Scale.'
- Scaliger, on dictionary making, iv. 312 ; and Horace, iv. 488.
- "Scaligers and Daciers, the," i. 437, ii. 363.
- Scamper, ii. 294, 296.
- Scandal, ii. 115, l. 31, 306, 327, iii. 25, iv. 51, 98 ; at Bath, iv. 67.
- Scandalous Magazine, The*, iii. 246.
- Scandinavia, iii. 160 ; poetry and mythology of, iv. 233, 238 n.
- Scania, the itch in, ii. 330.
- Scarborough, iv. 62.
- Scarron, i. 443, ii. 52, l. 1 ; translation of attributed to Goldsmith, ii. 136.

- Scenery, stage, ii. 311.
 Scents, i. 330.
 Scepticism, iv. 266; French, iii. 496.
 Scheld, the lazy, ii. 6, l. 2.
 Schencher, Dr., his edition of Kaempfer, iii. 426 n.
 Scholar, the life of a, iv. 157; and compiler, iii. 499; and man of the world, *ib.*
 Scholars, professed, iv. 444; the two, story, iii. 100.
 Scholarship, Goldsmith's, i. 453. *See also* School, &c.
 Scholastic jargon, iv. 446, v. 343.
 Schomberg, Duke of, v. 336.
 School, Goldsmith at, i. 3, 4, 7, 327, iii. 98. *See also* College, &c.
 School, boarding, qualifications for an usher at a, i. 156.
 Schoolmaster, an heroic, temp. plague of London. v. 195; the village, ii. 39, l. 195.
 Schoolmasters, v. 254, 256; ignorant, ii. 401; bad pay of, ii. 402.
 Schoolmen, the, iii. 9.
 School philosophy, iii. 482.
 Schools, London, ii. 401, v. 253; free, boarding, public, &c., ii. 401, Goody Two-Shoes' village, v. 361, 371 *et seq.*
 Science, abstruse, ii. 322; discoveries in, iii. 390; English abroad, ii. 322; Goldsmith's knowledge of, i. 21, 26, 30, v. 188; men of, their quarrels, iii. 256; the language of, v. 71; moral culture before, i. 331; secrets of, iii. 388; state of, temp. 1760-70, v. 186; studying, i. 336, v. 74; the systems of, v. 110; the "system makers" of, v. 120 n.; teaching, ii. 406. *See also* 'Experimental Philosophy,' &c.
 Sciences, the, iii. 313, v. 68, 210; and arts, rivalry of, iii. 522; and luxury, iii. 309; and polite learning, iii. 476. *See also* Arts, System-makers, &c.
 'Sciences, Origin of, from the Monkeys,' &c., Parnell's, iv. 169.
 "Scientific" treatment (a sort of), iv. 360.
 Scientific voyages of Cook, Banks, &c., ii. 95 n.
 Scolding and fighting, iv. 468.
 Sconce, building a, i. 302.
 Scot on witchcraft, ii. 459.
 Scotch, the, i. 420, iii. 25, 29; their Covenanters and the English rebellion, v. 311; inns, bad fare at, iii. 519; marriages, ii. 160, 200; scratching, iii. 406 n.; soldiers of fortune, iii. 455.
 'Scotch Marriages, A Register of,' 1773, i. 402.
 "Scotchman, beggarly," Johnson's (Mallet), iv. 223 n.
 Scotchmen, ii. 49, l. 75, 112.
 Scotch poets, Goldsmith on, i. 323 n.
 Scotland, i. 420, ii. 190; music and ballads of, i. 388, 391; the Union with, v. 12; and Holland contrasted, i. 429.
 Scots, Picts, &c., iv. 438.
 Scott, Geo., friend of Beau Nash, iv. 48, 50, 55, 113, 132 n.
 "Scott, Parson," ii. 49 n.
 Scott, Sir Walter, i. 327; his Demonology quoted, ii. 443; on Goldsmith, i. 58; on the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' i. 20, 53, 66; his Memoir of Goldsmith, ii. 217; his edition of Swift, ii. 76.
 Scoundrel, pains taken to be a, i. 190.
 'Scourge, The,' ii. 49, l. 77.
 Scragg, Ebenezer, iii. 387.
 Scratching, Scotch, iii. 406 n.
 Scribbling kind, the, ii. 87, l. 2.
 Scriblerus Club, the, iv. 169, 170, 177.
 Scriblerus Secundus, iv. 397.
 Scriptures, the, as history, v. 133.
 Scroggen, poor poet, ii. 82.
 Sculpture, masterpieces of, i. 337; undue patronage of, ii. 397; and writing, birth of, iv. 309.
 Scythe, the Hainault, iii. 390.

- 'Scythes, Les,' Voltaire's, ii. 95 n.
 Scythia, iv. 305.
 Scythians, the, i. 319.
 Sea, the Chinese at, iii. 14; the,
 and England, v. 10, 239.
 Seamen, Peter the Great's, ii.
 404.
 Sea-sickness, Goldsmith suffers,
 and invents a remedy, i. 457.
 Sects, religious, iii. 402.
 Sedgeley's home-brewed, i. 292.
 Sedley, Sir C., iv. 419; his 'Grum-
 bler,' ii. 295 n.
 Seedy clothes, ii. 176.
 Seem, to, the thing we are not, ii.
 93, l. 26.
 Segrais, ii. 394.
 Selby, Farmer, i. 464, v. 182 n.
 Self, the disagreeable, iii. 168;
 neglect of, ii. 150.
 "Self-applause, the solid worth
 of," ii. 14, l. 280.
 Self-denying ordinance (act of par-
 liament), v. 329.
 "Self-dependent power," ii. 45, l.
 428.
 Self-examination, iii. 310.
 Self-importance, i. 247.
 Self-interest, v. 254.
 Self-knowledge, i. 474-5.
 Self-preservation, iv. 240, 242.
 Self-sufficiency, iii. 492.
 Selwyn, G., his 'Correspondence,'
 iii. 220 n.
 Semiramis, iii. 233.
 Seneca, i. 387, iii. 55, 153, 162,
 365, iv. 319; on happiness, ii.
 436.
 Sensation and reason, iv. 141.
 Sensations, new, iii. 56.
 Sense, fine, and good sense, iv. 477;
 good sense *versus* learning, ii.
 447.
 Senses, the, all pleasures are of
 them, iii. 30; they point the
 way to discovery, iii. 42; lost
 senses, ii. 114, l. 4.
 Sensibility, i. 324, 327, 449, ii.
 378, 422, iii. 31, 178, 366, 424,
 iv. 6; excess of, i. 82; the
 foundation of, i. 332.
 Sensuality, the philosopher and,
 v. 110.
 Sentences, pointed, iii. 447.
 Sentimental comedy, i. 398, ii. 115,
 l. 36, 216, 218.
 Septimius, ii. 313.
 'Sentinel, Life of a Private,' iii.
 428.
 Sepulchral honours, iii. 46.
 Sereswati, iii. 308 n.
 Serious, the, and the ridiculous,
 i. 196.
 Sermon, the Vicar's, in prison, i.
 208.
 Sermons, ii. 427; 119 on the 119th
 Psalm, iv. 182; Latin, of the
 Roman Catholic party in Eng-
 land, temp. Mary, iv. 448; too
 many published, iii. 357. *See*
also Preaching, &c.
 Serpent, the, with many tails. *See*
 Dragon with many heads, &c.;
 and Buffalo combat, v. 241.
 Serpents, v. 110, 241; in Mace-
 donia, iii. 340; and birds, iv.
 258.
 Servants, black, iii. 243; fees to,
 iii. 210; masquerading as mas-
 ters, i. 152; at table, ii. 231;
 treatment of, ii. 395; and mas-
 ters, v. 291.
 Servetus, the death of, Voltaire on,
 ii. 341.
 Servitude, mental, iii. 427.
 Servius and Virgil, iii. 473.
 Sesostris, iii. 239.
 Settle, poet, iv. 373.
 "Settlement" (marriage), iii. 414.
 Seven Years' War, the, iii. 26 n.,
 155, 432, iv. 162, 469, 475, v. 66;
 state of Europe during, iii. 210.
 'Seven Years' War, History of
 the' (Preface), 1757-61, v. 7.
 — (notes on), iv. 411, 437, v. 7,
 17, 24, 32, 46, 49, 52, 55, 56, 66.
 — (cross-reference to), iv. 452.
 Sévigné, Madame de, H. Walpole
 on, iv. 276 n.
 Seward, W., F.R.S., v. 413 n.;
 the edition of Goldsmith's *Essays*,
 &c., attributed to him, *ib.*

- Sex in plants, v. 126.
- Sexes, the, in Scotland, i. 421; they spy upon each other, i. 103.
- Sexton, the great, iii. 392.
- Shabbaroon, Lady, ii. 166.
- Shaftesbury, Lord, ii. 448, v. 334; his imitators, ii. 448; on French writers, iii. 75; and Plato, v. 343.
- Shadwell, iv. 420; and Dryden, v. 157.
- 'Shakespeare, School of,' Kenrick's lectures on, ii. l. 86, 55. * * Not to be confounded with Capel's 'School of Shakspeare,' or with the later work so titled by Mr. R. Simpson.
- "Shakespeare and the musical glasses," i. 107, 105.
- Shakspeare, i. 358, 360, 372, 373, ii. 57, l. 124, 446, iv. 366, 367, 417, 421, 425, 454, v. 62, 63, 309; his "absurdities" in Hamlet, &c., i. 364-70, iii. 519, v. 346; his character, drawing, iv. 429; his comedy, iv. 427; 'Edwin and Angelina,' from, i. 453, ii. 21; as a dramatist, i. 146; his Falstaff, &c., i. 276; his Fluellen: *see under* Gam, David; hyperbole in, on Queen Mab, &c., i. 381; his learning, iv. 429, 458; his pathos, iv. 352; his provincial expressions, iv. 454; Goldsmith's criticism of, i. 407 n., ii. 456 n., iv. 232 n., 457, 513 n., v. 203 n.; Hume on, iv. 253 n.; Voltaire on, iv. 26, 29, 30 n., 355; and the dramatic rules, iv. 397; and the Euphuists, iv. 424; and Holinshed, iv. 429; and Ben Jonson, iv. 455; and Otway, v. 346. *See also under* the names of Shakspeare's plays, &c.
- Shame, i. n. 237; Guilt and; an allegory, i. 131.
- "Shammed Abraham," iii. 432.
- Shang, a Chinese woman of spirit, iii. 371.
- Sharp, making boys, i. 132.
- Sharpe, Dr. Gregory, iv. 408 n.
- Sharper, a, i. 404; the life of a, i. 195.
- Sharppers' tricks and slang, iv. 116.
- 'She Stoops to Conquer,' 1773, ii. 216-292.
- Cradock's alleged "help" in, i. 467-8 n., ii. 291 n.; the epilogues to, i. 468, ii. 110 n., 114 n., 290 n.; Colman and, ii. 216, v. 175 n.; Garrick and, v. 175 n.; Johnson and, ii. 216.
- (notes on), i. 4, 32, 34, 57, 60, 239, 402, 461, 464, 466, 467, 468, 469, ii. 40, 110, 115, 217, 292, 295, v. 175.
- (criticism on), i. 33, 402, ii. 216.
- (cross-reference to), iii. 515.
- Sheep, v. 213; Indian, ii. 328; following the shepherd's pipe, v. 214.
- Sheffield, Duke of Buckinghamshire, iv. 420.
- Shelburne, Lord, i. 39.
- Shenstone, his garden, i. 394; his 'Pastoral Ballad,' v. 161; his Poems, i. 395; his 'Schoolmistress,' v. 155.
- Shepherd, the Alpine, French, and English, v. 214; his pipe, v. 214.
- 'Shepherd's Week,' Gay's, i. 30.
- Sheridan, R. B., i. 40 n.
- Sheridan, Thos., i. 440, ii. 340 n., 407 n.; his lectures, &c., ii. 407 n.
- Sherlock, Bp., iv. 394; his Sermons, &c., *ib.*
- Shiels' (or Theo. Cibber's) 'Lives of the Poets,' i. 301 n.
- Shiites, the, iii. 417 n.
- Shilling, Dick Wildgoose, "cut off with a," ii. 337.
- Shin Shin, the, iii. 35.
- Shingfu and the mandarin, iii. 352.
- "Shining," opportunities of, iv. 86.
- Ship-money (tax) and Charles I. v. 312.
- 'Ship News,' Whitfoord's, ii. l. 24, 60.

- Shippen, William, M.P., iv. 435.
 Shipwreck, the fat man in a, i. 246;
 Goldsmith's escape from, i. 11,
 426.
 Shipwrecked lovers, the, iv. 485.
 Shire-lane, Temple Bar, "the
 gigantic hatter of," v. 209 n.
 Shirley, Mrs. *See* Rolle, Miss S.
 Shoe Lane, iii. 440.
 Shoe-maker, the story-telling, iii.
 392.
 Shonou, iii. 283.
 "Shop, keep your," &c., ii. 432.
 Shopkeeper, a, and his journeyman,
 iii. 289.
 Shops, London and Chinese, iii.
 43 n., 289.
 Shoreditch, ii. 109, iv. 413 n.;
 Thos. Monfett of, v. 71 n.
 Shoreditch, the Countess of, iii. 207.
 "Shoulder'd his crutch, and show'd
 how fields were won," ii. 38, l.
 158.
 Showman, a, i. 405.
 Shows, iii. 170.
 Shrimp, Mr.
 Shropshire, iii. 430.
 Shrovetide, pancakes on, i. 84.
 Shuter, E., actor, ii. 146, 217, 218,
 309; as Croaker in the 'Good
 Natured Man,' i. 27, ii. 193 n.
 Siam, iii. 128.
 Siamese, the, iii. 21.
 'Siamese Letters,' Du Freny's, iv.
 281.
 Siberia, iii. 15, 306, 309, 374.
 Siberian Tartary, iii. 388.
 'Sibbersik and Igluka,' v. 413 n.
 Sibyls, books of the, iii. 36.
 Siddons, Mrs., in 'Douglas,' iv.
 249 n.
 Sidney, Sir P., i. 384, iv. 309, 451;
 his 'Arcadia,' iv. 424; and Spen-
 ser, iv. 423.
 'Siege of Aleppo, The,' W. Haw-
 kins', iv. 398.
 Sigfusson, Saemund, iv. 234.
 Sights and monsters, running
 after, iii. 169.
 Signatures, Goldsmith's, iv. 428,
 514.
 Sign-boards, shop, i. 436, iii. 16,
 289; Addison on, iii. 16 n; ale-
 house, ii. 414.
 Silence, iii. 280; advantages of,
 iv. 471; eloquence of, ii. 421;
 of the forest, v. 228; Confucius
 on, iii. 218; and stupidity, i.
 253.
 Silk from China, iii. 303.
 'Simile, A New, in the Manner
 of Swift,' 1765 (?), ii. 87.
 Simple blessings, ii. 40, l. 252.
 Simplicity is beauty, i. 328; Eng-
 lish, iii. 196; a life of, iii. 309;
 and knavery, iv. 115; and na-
 ture, iii. 287; and wisdom, i. 98.
 Simpson, Farmer, v. 362.
 Simpson, his rooms at Bath, iv.
 72, 112.
 'Sin, On: a Simile,' v. 386.
 Singer, Mr., i. 458.
 Singers, foreign, iii. 130; opera,
 &c., ii. 452. *See also* Opera,
 &c.
 Singing in company, i. 261; a
 criticism of, iv. 479; women,
 our (the rival Pollys), iii. 317.
 Sinner, the repentant, i. 143, 178.
 'Sir Launcelot Greaves,' Smol-
 lett's, iv. 476.
 'Sister, The,' epilogue to, ii. 92.
 Sizar at Trinity College, Dublin,
 Goldsmith a, i. 5.
 Skating in Holland, i. 428.
 Skeggs, Miss Carolina Wilhel-
 mina Amelia, i. 111; on virtue,
 i. 113.
 Slang, sharpers, thieves, &c., iv.
 116.
 Slattern and a coquette, a (Mrs.
 Tibbs), iii. 209.
 Slaughter's Coffee-house, i. 249,
 iv. 466.
 Slave, the contented, ii. 334.
 Slavery in Athens, ii. 314; of the
 people in France, v. 223; in
 Persia, iii. 82, 133, 221; volun-
 teers for, i. 162; and wooden
 shoes, i. 152, iii. 432.
 Slaves, Athenian, ii. 314, 395.
 "Slaves, a den of," ii. 15, l. 309.

- Sledding in Holland, i. 428.
 Sleep, iv. 357, v. 205; and mental labour, v. 205.
 Sleep-walker, Cyrillo Padovano the noted, iv. 506.
 Sleeping Vestal, the, v. 210.
 Sleigh, Dr., i. 11, 16 n.
 "Sliding" v. "gliding," i. 361.
 Sligo, the Countess of, ii. 260.
 Sloane, Sir Hans, iii. 426 n.
 Small-pox, the, i. 156, ii. 86, l. 77, 465, iii. 28, 108, 175, iv. 171, 498, v. 210 n.
 Smart, A. M., and Co., of Reading, v. 68 n.
 Smart, Chris., v. 67 n.; and Goldsmith, v. 67 n.; and Newbery, v. 67 n.
 Smiglesius, ii. 77, l. 5; "the dreary subtleties of," iv. 158, 502 n.
 Smith, Adam, i. 37.
 Smith, Edward (poet), iv. 422.
 Smith, "Gentleman," and 'She Stoops,' ii. 115, 292 n.
 Smith (? John Christopher, 1712-95), composer, i. 390.
 Smith, R., actor, ii. 146.
 Smith, Rev. Mr., v. 358.
 Smithfield, i. 307.
 Smock, iv. 60.
 Smock-race, a, i. 109.
 Smokeum, i. 255.
 Smokes = finds out, i. 94, ii. 82, 176, iv. 384.
 Smoking, i. 254, 258, iv. 64; in Holland, i. 427.
 Smollett, Dr., i. 389, ii. 393, iv. 257 n.; Goldsmith's (?) defence of, iv. 411 n.; his 'History of England,' ii. 393, iv. 254, v. 168; his novels, ii. 394; as a poet, iii. 153; his 'Sir Launcelot Greaves,' i. 389, iv. 476; his 'Tears of Scotland,' v. 160; and Cervantes, iv. 476; and Goldsmith, i. 18, ii. 393, 455, 303, 350, 410; and Grainger, iv. 411 n.; and Griffiths, iii. 50 n., iv. 257 n.; and Pitt, v. 412 n.
 Smollett's 'History of England' (criticism), 1757, iv. 254.
 "Smut, talked," iii. 186.
 Smyrna Coffee-house, ii. 347, iv. 112, 467.
 Snail, v. 118.
 Snakeskin, Lord, iii. 290.
 'Snarler, the,' ii. 49, l. 77.
 Sneezing, plague of, iii. 250 n.; and "God bless you!" iii. 250.
 Snow-hill, ii. 465 n.
 Snuffing candles with the fingers, i. 254.
 Social tie, the, the English negligent of, ii. 16, l. 340.
 Societies, learned, iii. 466, 484; scientific, explorations by, iii. 389.
 Society, i. 268, iii. 521, iv. 52, 476; the principle of, iv. 240; and animals, ii. 369; and wisdom, ii. 414.
 Socrates, iii. 162, 217, 472, iv. 369; Aristophanes' ridicule of him, i. 350.
 Sofala, iii. 412.
 "Softly sweet," song, i. 251.
 Soho Square, Mrs. Conely's "Great Room" there, ii. 97 n.
 Solander, Dr., ii. 95 n.
 Soldier, a, i. 170, iii. 21; "the broken," ii. 37, l. 155.
 — the life of a, i. 180, 293; the poor, ii. 104, l. 198. *See also* Sentinel, life of a private.
 Soldier, "the animal called the," iii. 511.
 Soldiers, i. 288; female, i. 315-20; of fortune, iii. 455; old, iii. 271; and artisans, iii. 92; and officers, iii. 447, v. 337. *See also* Bravery, Officers, &c.
 Solecism, a, ii. 106.
 Solicitors, &c., ii. 384, iii. 361. *See also* Attorney, &c.
 Solinus, iii. 59.
 Solitary thinking, v. 328.
 Solomon, the German, iii. 477.
 Solomon, King, puppet play, i. 292, ii. 255.
 Solomon, Song of, i. 353.

- 'Solomon's Song,' song, i. 251.
 Solon, ii. 106.
 Somers, Lord, iii. 503.
 'Song' (Miss Hardcastle's), ii. 110; Tony Lumpkin's, ii. 226.
 Song, Mrs. Tibbs sings a, at Vauxhall, iii. 269.
 Song-birds, v. 229.
 'Songs,' two, attributed to Goldsmith, iv. 505.
 Songs, old, i. 91; sung by Goldsmith, ii. 110 n., 214 n.; Goldsmith's for Miss Brent, iv. 483 n.; of Ranelagh Gardens, i. 141; various, i. 251.
 'Sonnet, a' (Myra), 1759, ii. 79.
 Sonnites, the, iii. 417 n.
 Sons, iii. 89.
 Sophocles, i. 348, iv. 315.
 Sophronia, iii. 108.
 Sorbonne, the, and the Abbé Prade, iii. 495.
 Sorrow, iii. 31; social, ii. 147; and consolation, i. 78.
 Sotheby and Co., book auctioneers, v. 166 n.
 Soul, the, i. 196, iii. 179; iv. 393, 401.
 Soul, Tien the Universal, iii. 29.
 Souls of women, iii. 363.
 Sounds, iv. 244.
 Soup-meagre, Monsieur, iv. 469.
 Sourby (the "Grumbler"), ii. 294, 296.
 South, his sermons, ii. 343 n.
 Southampton, turtle-feast at, i. 304.
 Southern, iv. 418.
 Southwark, beer and breweries in, iii. 405 n.; election for, iii. 405 n.; Goldsmith in, i. 15, 16, 432; Thrale, Mr., of, iii. 405 n.
 Southwark Fair (?). *See* Sudrick Fair.
 Southwell, Chevalier, v. 128.
 Spa, iv. 62.
 Spadille, card-game, ii. 290.
 Spain, iii. 160, v. 23, 56; its American colonies, v. 56; the Irish language there, iv. 307; learning in, iii. 377; literature of, ii. 360, iii. 487, 531; a market for wives in, i. 141; music of, i. 387; superstition in, ii. 360; war with, i. 259, 260, 317; and America, ii. 413; Cromwell and, v. 14; and the Dutch, v. 11; and England, v. 56; and the 'Seven Years' War,' v. 56.
 Spaniards, the, i. 54, 320-2, iii. 25, 26.
 Spanish, imitation from the, ii. 79, 308.
 Sparta, worship of Diana in, i. 343 n.
 Spartans, the, iii. 47.
 Speaker of the House of Commons, iv. 434.
 Spectacles, at the play, iii. 78; the gross of green, i. 118.
Spectator, The, ii. 365, 392, iv. 214.
 Spedding, a gambler, iv. 143, 148.
 Speech is to conceal our thoughts, ii. 343.
 Spelling game, Goody Two-Shoes', v. 360.
 Spence, his 'Anecdotes,' iv. 169.
 Spenser, i. 384, iv. 417, v. 309; his poverty, iii. 315; his death, iv. 335; and Sidney, iv. 423; and Shakspeare, iv. 336 n.
 'Spenser's Faerie Queene' (criticism), 1759, iv. 333.
 Sperate, &c. (motto), i. 65.
 Speronis, the, iii. 480.
 Spiders, ii. 369, v. 113, 114, 118.
 Spilman, H., Esq., iii. 233.
 Spin, in full, i. 257.
 Spinosa, ii. 411, iv. 268.
 Spirit husband, the, ii. 478.
 Spirits, &c., ii. 442, iii. 57. *See also* Ghost, &c.
 Spirits, low. *See* Spleen, &c.
 "Spirits, a scurvy of the," iv. 500.
 Spleen, in England, iii. 253, 386; a fit of, iii. 336; Parnell's fits of, iv. 165.
 "Sports of children satisfy the child," ii. 11, l. 154.

- Sprat, Bishop, ii. 447, iv. 373; on English gravity, ii. 437.
- 'Sprig of Shillelagh, The,' air, v. 224 n.
- Spriggins, Mr., gives 'Mad Tom' in all his glory, i. 251.
- Spring, its earliest bloom, ii. 105, 239.
- Spring Gardens, New (afterwards Vauxhall), iii. 270 n.
- Springfield, Essex, alleged site of Auburn, ii. 141 n.
- Spunging-house, a, ii. 145, iii. 117.
- Squash, Bill, the Creolian, iii. 207.
- Squash, Lord, iii. 115.
- Squeeze, Miss, iii. 108.
- Squint, Lawyer, iii. 111.
- Squinting, ii. 310.
- Squires and parsons, iv. 493.
- Squirt, the apothecary's, iii. 200.
- Stadtholders and Dictators, v. 53.
- Staff given as a horse to the Vicar's son, i. 79; and to Goldsmith, i. 416.
- Stag, Æsop's, ii. 116, l. 27; the English, v. 215.
- Stage, the, ii. 96, l. 21; ii. 114, l. 6, iii. 516; English, Riccoboni on, ii. 311; of France, iv. 12; acknowledging applause from, ii. 339; carpets spread on, for death scenes, iii. 81; criticism of, ii. 309; "gagging" on, ii. 288 n.; illusion must be kept up, ii. 339; "the inglorious," ii. 75; Laberius forced upon, ii. 75; lightning of, ii. 116, l. 18; properties and preparations, iii. 294; scenery, &c., ii. 311; is shut to writers of merit, iii. 499; state of, i. 146; writing for, iii. 505, 517; and criticism of it, iv. 249; Goldsmith and, i. 469, ii. 111, iii. 462 n.; and merit, ii. 146.
- 'Stage, View of the,' Wilkes' (Derrick's), v. 64.
- Stage-players, iii. 36; their patrons, iii. 321; their popularity, position, and profits in England and China, iii. 319; the squabbles of, iii. 316. *See also* Actors, &c.
- Stair, Earl of, and Bolingbroke, iv. 208.
- 'Stanton, Miss, The History of,' 1760, iv. 491.
- (notes on), i. 237, 482.
- Star Chamber, the, v. 312.
- Starling, the, v. 221.
- State, the, is vicious in proportion to the number of its laws, ii. 428; a great man in, i. 161.
- "States, barren," their good and ill, ii. 12, l. 209.
- Statesmen, false, ii. 92, l. 15; the village, ii. 39, l. 223.
- Statue and gibbet, difference between, ii. 415.
- Statues, antique, iii. 133.
- Stature of man, the, v. 209.
- Stay, iii. 490.
- Steele, Sir R., i. 443, ii. 389, 449, 450, iv. 160, 248 n., 418, v. 345; his 'Conscious Lovers,' iv. 428; his 'Funeral' and 'Tender Husband,' i. 33.
- Steevens, George, ii. 61 n., 97 n., iv. 178; his Goldsmith collection, iv. 411, v. 7.
- Steno, Nicholas, v. 91.
- "Stern o'er each bosom," &c. (the Englishman), ii. 16, l. 325.
- Sterne (?), a "bawdy blockhead," iii. 285; his strokes and dashes, &c., ridiculed (?), iii. 192, 199; Goldsmith and Johnson on, iii. 199. * * Mr. Ford thinks that perhaps Goldsmith visited Sterne at Coxwold, about 1760.
- Stevens, R. J. S., composer, ii. 61 n.
- Stillingfleet, Bp., ii. 447.
- Stingo (landlord), ii. 227.
- Stirling, Earl of. *See* Alexander, Sir W., iv. 424.
- Stirling's Ovid, iv. 326.
- Stock Exchange, origin, ii. 353 n.
- Stock-holding alarmists, i. 312.

- Stockholm, ii. 330.
 Stocks, rise and fall of, i. 260, 292.
 Stories, Farmer Flamborough's, i. 111; good, iii. 99; of vice not profitable, i. 194; and reasoning, i. 280.
 Story, a good, iii. 219.
 Strada, 371.
 Strafford, Earl of, iv. 459, v. 314, 316; trial and execution of, v. 318.
 Stralenberg, Van, iii. 123.
 Strand, the, Goldsmith in, v. 174 n.; viragos of, i. 318.
 Strawberry Hill press, the, iv. 296 n.
 Strean, Dr., ii. 138 n.; on the locality of Auburn, *ib.*
 Street quarrel, a, iii. 70.
 Streets, the, at night, ii. 377, iii. 423.
 Strode, Mr., v. 321.
 Studies for youth, v. 255.
 Study inculcated, v. 255; the love of, iv. 184; Bolingbroke on, iv. 218; and dress, i. 76; and pleasure, iii. 310.
 "Stumps, wrought with her," iii. 171.
 Stupidity, "cautious stupidity is always in the right," iii. 467; the use of, iii. 230; and silence, i. 253.
 Sturleson, Snoro, iv. 235.
 Style, ii. 422, iv. 445; forming, i. 336; Johnson's and Goldsmith's, i. 52.
 Sublime, the, in art, i. 338; and burlesque, iii. 379; and beautiful distinction between, iv. 240.
 'Sublime and Beautiful, Ideas of the' (criticism), 1757, iv. 239.
 Subordination, i. 149, 331, iii. 40, 73, 366, 381, 449, v. 41; and freedom, iv. 189; and liberty, combination of, iv. 24.
 Subscription published books, iii. 502.
 Subtleties, "the dreary," of Smiglesius, iv. 158.
 Success and enemies, iii. 505.
 Suckling, poet, iv. 422.
 Sudrick-Fair (? Southwark), i. 308.
 Sueur, Le, painter, i. 333.
 Suffering, ii. 378, iii. 424.
 Suffolk Street, v. 202 n.
 Sugared provisions, ii. 405.
 Suicide, a, iii. 278; the, ii. 377, iii. 423; of Miss Sylvia S—, iv. 97; and the Japanese, iv. 354.
 Sullen, Polly, v. 364.
 Sun, dread of its extinction, iii. 343.
 Sunday "finery," i. 86.
 Sundays, card-playing on, i. 302.
 Sunderland, Lord, and Bolingbroke, iv. 211 n.
 Suns, mock, v. 194.
 Superficial education, ii. 408.
 "Superfluity, barren," v. 183.
 Supernumeraries, stage, ii. 311.
 Superstition, v. 286; and the Reformation, ii. 459.
 Superstitions of the Daures, iii. 39.
 Surrey, Earl of, iv. 446.
 Suspicion, the use of, iii. 100.
 Suspicious, the, iv. 86.
 Suspirius, Johnson's, and Goldsmith's Croaker, i. 27, ii. 193 n.
 Swallows, v. 100, 234.
 Swammerdam, J., v. 72.
 Swamp, Lord, iii. 208.
 Swearing, Beau Nash's, iv. 91; Beau Tibbs', iii. 207, 381; popular, iv. 465; of knights, iii. 398.
 Swedes, the, account of, ii. 329.
 Sweden, economy in, ii. 387; polite learning in, iii. 488; state of, iii. 211; and England, v. 22; and Prussia, v. 35; and Russia, wars between, iii. 234.
 Swift, i. 327, 443, ii. 389, 448, 450, iv. 160, 161, 162, 163, 167, 248, 366, 369, 418, v. 345; his 'Baucis and Philemon,' v. 160; and the best bed, iv. 170; his 'Cadenus and Vanessa,' v. 161; his degree *ex speciali gratia*, i. 327; his intervention between Harley and Bolingbroke, iv. 190; his Laputians, iii. 345 n.; his

- letters to Pope, iv. 211, 215, 216; his madness, i. 441; and the mob, ii. 415; his pride, iv. 110; his printer, Faulkner, iv. 404; his 'Proposal' for an English Grammar, ii. 449-50; his 'Rhapsody on Poetry,' v. 157; his song from Carolan the bard, i. 393; Faulkner's edition of, and Scott's, ii. 76 n.; Goldsmith's imitations of, ii. 76, 87, iii. 514; Goldsmith's 'Logicians Refuted' claimed for Swift, ii. 76; and Addison, v. 345; and Dr. Dunkin, iv. 403 n.; and Ireland, i. 59 n.; and Parnell, iv. 166, 170, 177; and Sir R. Walpole, ii. 77 n., v. 157.
- Swimming in the Thames, i. 306.
- Swiss, the, ii. 11, l. 165.
- Switzerland, ii. 428, iii. 164, 188; Calvinism in, v. 311; Goldsmith's wanderings in, i. 14, ii. 3; music of, i. 387.
- Sword, by right of the, iii. 451; Goldsmith draws his, v. 174 n.
- Swords, wearing, prohibited at Bath, iv. 69.
- Sydney, Lord (T. Townshend), ii. 53, l. 34.
- Syllabub, Tim, iii. 110.
- Sylvester II., Pope, iii. 477.
- Sylvia, S——, Miss, iv. 92.
- Syncope, parenthesis, and apoplexy, iii. 258.
- Synge, Bp., i. 7.
- Syria, animals of, v. 86.
- System makers, iv. 502 n., v. 120 n., 187, 188, 199; in science, v. 184.
- Systems, scientific, v. 192.
- T——d, Earl of, and Beau Nash, iv. 78.
- Table, a good thing at, i. 459; exercise (waiting) for servants, ii. 231.
- Tablets, writing, ii. 258.
- Tabor and pipe, i. 84.
- Tachard, Father, v. 82, 83.
- Tacitus, i. 334, iii. 104, iv. 280, 388, v. 253, 257, 258; on the evil of many laws, ii. 428; quoted, iii. 393, 475.
- Taffy in the sedan-chair, the story of, iii. 100.
- Tailor, the, and the conjuror, iii. 230.
- Tails, English with, Maiolo's account of, iii. 61.
- Takupi, the prime minister of Tipartala, iii. 369.
- Talapoins, the, iii. 400.
- Talbot Inn, ii. 199.
- Talbot, old James, the story of, i. 287.
- Talbots, the, iii. 452.
- "Tale, the, went round," i. 91.
- Talent and taste, i. 324.
- Talents, the, which support a man are under-rated, i. 165.
- Tales, Goldsmith's short, praised, i. 53.
- Talipot, king of Manacabo, iii. 435.
- Talk, high-life, i. 104.
- Talkative, error is, ii. 4.
- Talleyrand, ii. 343 n.
- Tamerlane = Timur the lame, iii. 436.
- Tamerlane, i. 370, iv. 306.
- Tankard, a full, i. 292.
- Tanlang, a, that eats women, iii. 330.
- Tanner, Dr. *See under* Anodyne necklace.
- Tao, iii. 31. *See also* Taon, &c.
- Tao-sse, iii. 2 n.
- Tarantula, the, iv. 64, v. 207.
- Tartars, the, iii. 20, 41, 83, 91, 123, 134, 274, 280, 304; their bow, iii. 15; their funerals, iii. 382; warfare of, iii. 406.
- Tartary, iii. 15, 38, 159; Siberian, iii. 388; love in, iii. 412; the tribes of, iii. 18.
- Task, *versus* amusement, ii. 409; and entertainment, v. 163.
- Tasso, ii. 357, iii. 480; his cat, *ib.*; his poverty, iii. 314; on the rosebud, ii. 326.

- Taste, iii. 54, 129, 181; false, i. 324, ii. 358; a relative excellence, iii. 533; deformity of, ii. 307; depravation of, iii. 526; false, in poetry, i. 98; in gardening, i. 397; is the link between science and common sense, iii. 527; the man of, iii. 499; pretenders to, i. 298, ii. 290, iv. 477; public, is grown too nice, ii. 145; stepping into, i. 165; sensibility its foundation, i. 332; at Vauxhall, iii. 269; and criticism, i. 326; and talent, i. 324.
- 'Taste, Essay on,' Gerard's, iv. 364 n.
- 'Taste and Literature in Europe, The Present State of.' *See* 'Polite Learning,' &c.
- 'Taste, The Mansions of Poetry and,' 1760, iv. 486.
- 'Taste, On the Cultivation of,' 1761, i. 332.
- 'Taste, Upon,' 1761, i. 323.
- (criticism) i. 407, 408.
- 'Tate's Miscellanies,' v. 156.
- 'Tatler, The,' iv. 248 n.
- Tattering a kip, i. 159. * * "Tattering a kip" is "storming a bagnio," according to Davies' 'Supplementary Glossary,' 1881.
- Taverns, i. 287, 290; happiness there, i. 163; life in, i. 280, 287, 320; papal indulgences sold at, v. 293.
- Tavoras, execution of, iii. 27.
- Tax, war, upon beer, 1760-61, iii. 403 n.
- Taxes, iii. 188.
- Taylor and Clarke, duel, iv. 69.
- Taylor, Dr., the oculist, iv. 433 n.
- Taylor, Jeremy, ii. 343 n.
- Tchin, iii. 162.
- Tea, v. beer, iv. 274; drinking, i. 87; Hanway's attack on, iv. 269-71; Johnson's defence of, 274 n.; substitutes for, iv. 271; at White Conduit House, ii. 328.
- Teach, ready to, i. 67.
- Teachers and pupils, i. 474.
- Teaching, juvenile, in 'Goody Two-Shoes,' &c., v. 375 n.; the question and answer method of, v. 165.
- Teague and Taffy, dialogue, i. 251.
- Tears, iii. 138.
- Tea-table scandal, i. 289.
- Temper, English and French, ii. 435; effects of climate on, iii. 340; happiness of, ii. 335.
- Temperance, i. 269, ii. 404.
- Tempers, congenial, i. 250.
- Tempest, Lady Betty, iii. 108.
- Tempests, balls, and drums (parties), iv. 471.
- Temple, the, Goldsmith in, i. 22, 462, 484, 485, v. 171 n., 173, 225, 254; Goldsmith's grave there, i. 40.
- Temple Bar, i. 46, iv. 384.
- Temple Exchange Coffee-house, i. 433, 435, 438, iii. 441 n.
- Temple Gardens, the rooks in, v. 224.
- Temple, Middle, Beau Nash at, iv. 57.
- Temple Lane, i. 460.
- Temple, Sir W., ii. 447; on human life, ii. 155, iii. 527, v. 259 n.; on the weather in England, iii. 337 n.
- Templeman, Dr., iii. 539 n.
- Temptation and virtue, i. 137.
- 'Tenants, The, of the Leasowes,' 1773, i. 394.
- 'Tender Husband,' Steele's, i. 33.
- Tenderness is a virtue, ii. 176.
- Teniers and Berghem prints, ii. 431.
- Tennis Court, the, iv. 149.
- Tenterden, i. 295, 297.
- Terence, i. 335, 400, iii. 314; his "Homo sum," &c., i. 329; and Evantius, iii. 473.
- Terki, iii. 221.
- Terror, iv. 242.
- Tessin, Count, iii. 488.
- Teutonic poetry, iii. 513.
- Thackeray, Miss, her 'Miss Angel,' ii. 94 n.

- Thackeray, W. M., his 'Rose and the Ring,' iii. 329.
- Thalestris, iii. 233.
- Thame, the "Three Pigeons" near, ii. 228 n.
- Thames, the, ii. 102, l. 182, 105, l. 235; frozen over, dream of, iii. 11; the Danes in, v. 269; Denham on, i, 385; Pope on, i. 371, 372; swimming in, i. 306.
- Thames Street, iii. 267, iv. 294.
- "That there," a cockneyism or a Scotticism? iv. 292.
- Thatched House Inn, The Club there, i. 24. *See also* Almacks.
- Thayer, of Bath, iv. 84 n.
- Theatre, the, at Bath, iv. 75; English and French, Voltaire on, iv. 28; Footmen's gallery there, ii. 396 n.; gallery, pit, &c., at, ii. 96, 446, 452; instruction at, ii. 296; morning performances at, ii. 9, 114; riot at Edinburgh, ii. 396 n.; writing for, iii. 296.
- 'Theatre, An Essay on the; or a Comparison Between Sentimental and Laughing Comedy,' 1773, i. 398.
- (criticism of), i. 402.
- (cross-references to), iii. 515, iv. 352.
- Theatres, English and Foreign, ii. 309, iii. 516; Goldsmith at the, v. 174 n.
- 'Theatres, Our,' ii. 338.
- Thee and thou, use of, iii. 126, iv. 285.
- Themistocles, Aristides and, i. 335.
- Theobald (critic), iii. 407, iv. 177.
- Theocritus, i. 361, v. 157.
- Theodoric the Ostrogoth, ii. 313.
- Theon, Hypatia, the daughter of, ii. 349.
- Theophrastus, iv. 379, v. 69; on the frigid, i. 378; on metaphor, i. 362.
- Theory and practice, ii. 408.
- "There was a young man riding by," song, ii. 249.
- Theseus, iv. 487.
- Thespis, i. 347; Horace on, *ib.*
- Thibet, iii. 42, 83.
- Thief-takers, iii. 338.
- Thieves, rewards for their conviction, ii. 109.
- 'Thimble, The,' W. Hawkins', iv. 397, 400.
- Think, those who, must govern those that toil, ii. 17, l. 372.
- Thinkers. *See also* Freethinkers.
- Thinking, unpopularity of, ii. 92, l. 8.
- "Third nights" = authors' benefit nights, iii. 520.
- Thomas, Isaiah, American publisher, v. 350.
- Thomas, Mr. Moy, on Collins and Goldsmith, iii. 508 n.
- Thomas, W., Edward VI.'s tutor, iv. 447.
- Thompson, Farmer, v. 363.
- Thomson, i. 323 n., 373, iv. 418; his 'Liberty,' i. 332; his 'Palemon and Lavinia,' v. 159.
- Thor, iv. 236.
- Thornhill, Squire, i. 80, 159.
- Thornhill, Sir Wm., i. 81, 20 n., 160. *See also* Burchell, and under Wakefield.
- Thornton, supposed original of *Beau Tibbs*, iii. 206 n.
- Thornton, Bonnel, iii. 406 n., 409 n., iv. 248 n.; his 'Connoisseur,' iv. 248.
- Thoth, iv. 308.
- 'Thoughts upon,' &c. (books so titled), iii. 357.
- Thrace, ii. 314.
- Thrale, W., iii. 405 n., iv. 413 n.; his brewery, iii. 405 n.; his library, i. 62 n.
- Thrale, Mr. or Mrs.?, ii. 49, l. 72.
- Thrale, Mr. and Mrs., i. 461.
- Three Nuns, The, Whitechapel, v. 177 n.
- Three Pigeons, The, ii. 140 n., 222, 226; near Thame, ii. 228 n.
- 'Threnodia Augustalis,' 1772, ii. 97.
- and Mr. Cradock, i. 467.
- (notes on), ii. 97, 106.
- Thridi. *See* Tredie.

- Thrift, i. 449.
 Thumb, rule of, ii. 254.
 Thunder-and-lightning cloth, i. 116.
 Thwackum and Square ('Tom Jones'), i. 97.
 Thyer, R., iv. 368; his edition of Butler's 'Remains,' iv. 368.
 "Thyrsis, a young and am'rous swain," Parnell's, iv. 174.
 Tibbald = Theobald, which see.
 Tibbs, Beau, iii. 203, 206; his character, iii. 205; his wife, his house, &c., iii. 206; his description of the intended coronation, iii. 378; at Vauxhall, iii. 266; at the wedding, iii. 444; on women, &c., iii. 362; and Nash, iv. 88 n., 121; and the women, iii. 205.
 Tibbs, Bill, iii. 429.
 Tibbs, Carolina Wilhelmina Amelia, iii. 207.
 Tibbs, Mrs., iii. 207; at the coronation (by anticipation), iii. 380; her song, iii. 269; at the wedding, iii. 444.
 Tibs, Mr., a "useful hand" in literature, iii. 111.
 Tibullus, i. 335; and Ovid, i. 330.
 Tickell on Addison, iv. 367 n.; on the death of Addison, v. 160; his 'Colin and Lucy,' *ib.*
 Tickling Society, the, ii. 418.
 Ticonderago, siege of, i. 245; capture of, iv. 462 n.
 Tie, or tye, = obligation, iii. 31.
 Tien = God, or heaven, iii. 134.
 Tien the "Universal Soul," iii. 29.
 Tigellius, iv. 142.
 Tiger, the, ii. 4; and elephant fight, v. 83.
 Tigers, American, v. 88, ii. 43, l. 355, iii. 63, iv. 260, 262.
 "Tillage, half a," &c., ii. 34, l. 40.
 Tillotson, Archbp., ii. 427, 447, iii. 128, v. 334; and Barrow, ii. 447.
 Time, the god of, i. 395.
 Times, abusing the, i. 270; old, ii. 220; old and new, i. 278, *et seq.* See also under Age, the.
 Timur the Lame = Tamerlane, iii. 436.
 Tinderbox, Miss Jenny, iii. 107.
 "Tip top, quite high," iii. 208.
 Tipartala, Takupi, the minister of, iii. 369.
 Tipertala, iii. 15.
 Tippy, the skylark, v. 376.
 Tisiang, Emperor, and the twelve mandarins, iii. 158.
 Titans, the, iv. 306.
 Tithes, reducing, v. 359, 395.
 'Titi, Prince,' fairy tale, attributed to Frederick, Prince of Wales, iv. 185 n.
 Title-pages, iii. 357; books written for, iii. 192.
 Titles, absurd, iii. 434; influence of, iii. 346; and distinctions, literary, iii. 377; foreign, and Englishmen, iii. 455.
 'Titus and Gisippus,' Boccaccio's, ii. 313 n.
 Toad, the, its venom, v. 239; the toad-stone, or "jewel," Lupton on, v. 239 n.; toad and frog, v. 239.
 Toad-eaters, iii. 20, 123.
 'Toast, The,' Dr. King's, iv. 139 n.
 "Tobacco and brandy for ever!" iii. 495.
 Toland, ii. 450.
 Toleration, Voltaire on, ii. 340.
 Tom, the pigeon, v. 375.
 'Tom the Porter,' Byrom's, iii. 22 n.
 'Tom Jones,' Fielding's, ii. 405, iv. 106 n.
 'Tom Telescope,' v. 356 n.
 Tom Tickle. See under Kenrick.
 'Tom Thumb's Folio,' v. 356 n.
 Tom Twist, ii. 222.
 Tom Two-Shoes, v. 358, 395, 399.
 Tomkyn, Sir, Lady Blarney's story of, i. 112.
 'Tommy Trip,' v. 356 n.; not by Goldsmith, v. 388.

- Tonguese, the, iii. 18.
 Tonquinese, iii. 128.
 Tony Lumpkin, i. 33, 468 n., ii. 221; Cradock's epilogue for, ii. 290; Quick and others as, ii. 271 n., 288 n., 295 n.; and Woodward, ii. 217 n.
 Tooke's 'Pantheon,' ii. 87, l. 6.
 Top-knots, i. 104.
 Torcy, De, iv. 200.
 Torno's cliffs, ii. 45, l. 418.
 Torpedo, a, iv. 68.
 Torricelli, v. 148.
 Tory, i. 462; writers of Queen Anne's reign, ii. 450; and Whig, Goldsmith and, v. 176 n.
 Tottimondelem, King, iii. 416.
 Touch for, to, iii. 116.
 Tournefort, J. P. de, v. 120 n., 121, 126.
 "Towards," drinking, good health, i. 171.
 Tower of London, the, embarking troops there, temp. Seven Years' War, v. 31; the menagerie there, v. 216.
 Tower Wharf, ii. 246.
 Town, authors about, i. 156; ladies of fashion from, i. 104; trips to, ii. 220; wit, a, i. 93; a year or two in, ii. 222; and country, temp. 1700, iv. 62; and country life, iii. 336, 371 n.; iv. 473.
 Town, Mr., iv. 248. *See also* "About town," &c.
 "Town, house in," iii. 414.
 Townley, Rev. James, ii. 395 n.
 Townshend (?), ii. 55, l. 88.
 Townshend, Lord, ii. 47 n.
 Townshend, T., afterwards Lord Sydney, ii. 53, l. 34.
 Track and tract, v. 27 n.
 Tract = track, v. 27, 137.
 Trade, English, temp. Elizabeth, &c., v. 10; v. gentility, iii. 268.
 "Trade's proud empire," &c., ii. 45, l. 427.
 "Trade's unfeeling train," &c., ii. 35, l. 63.
 'Trade, Thoughts upon,' v. 405, 406.
 Tradesman = mechanic, ii. 431, iii. 65, iv. 464.
 "Tradesman's tragedy," i. 399, 400, 401.
 Tradesmen, like women, put all their best goods in the window, ii. 195; swindling, i. 302; and bankruptcy, iii. 107.
 Trading nations, iii. 93.
 Tradition, ii. 366.
 Trafalgar Square, i. 249 n.
 'Tragedie, Discours sur la,' Voltaire's, iv. 28.
 Tragedies, Burton's Greek, iv. 315.
 Tragedy, iii. 428, 429, iv. 352, 426; English, ii. 446, iv. 28, 30 n.; Goldsmith's unfinished, i. 17; modern, iii. 81, 297, 359; "tradesman's," i. 400, 401; origin of, i. 346; on the stage, ii. 311; Aristotle on, i. 349, 399; Boileau on, i. 399; Horace on, i. 346; and comedy, i. 398, ii. 54, l. 66.
 Trail, Lady, iii. 290.
 Train-bands, iii. 149.
 Trains, women's, ii. 325, 328, iii. 302, 321 n.
 Tranquillity within, i. 475.
 Transactions of societies, ii. 418.
 Translation, iv. 320, v. 155.
 Translations, iv. 317, v. 3; Cicero and Horace on, i. 336; Goldsmith's, ii. 135, iv. 140, v. 192, *see also* 'Vida's Game of Chess,' 'Protestant, Memoirs of a,' &c.; (notes on), i. 7, 325, 331, 346, 347, 348, 407, ii. 413, iii. 12.
 Translators, iv. 300; temp. Eliz. and James, iv. 458.
 Transmigration of souls, iii. 57.
 Transported for killing a hare, iii. 430.
 Transubstantiation, iv. 454.
 Trant, Mrs. Olive (Jacobite), iv. 199, 201.
 Trapp's Virgil, i. 353.
 Trash = coin, iii. 147.

- Travel, philosophy of, iii. 32 ; and education, iii. 521.
- Travels, in Asia, &c., iv. 360 ; Goldsmith's, i. 270, 321, 430, ii. 35, 319, iii. 238, v. 73. *See also* France, Holland, &c., Goldsmith in ; Goldsmith's scheme of, in the East, iii. 389 n., 391 n. ; Van Egmont and Heyman's, iv. 360 ; writing, i. 427.
- 'Traveller, The,' 1764-5, ii. 1.
- the alleged Johnson lines in, i. 27, ii. 19, 45, 141, v. 317.
- (notes on), i. 3, 24, 54, 59, 483, ii. 141, 319, iii. 41, v. 9, 175.
- (criticism of), i. 24, 45, ii. 16, 142, iii. 17.
- (cross-references to), iii. 213, 516, iv. 403, v. 9, 175, 317.
- 'Traveller, Letter from a,' ii. 319.
- Travellers, Jesuit, iv. 258 ; missionary, *ib.* ; iii. 32 ; fables of, iii. 59 ; ignorance of, iii. 387 ; their manner ridiculed, iii. 439 ; stories, iv. 257 ; styles of, iii. 211.
- Travelling, iii. 112, 157 ; after Fortune is not the way to secure her, i. 155 ; Goldsmith's passion for, i. 12, 14, 25 ; at twenty and at forty, i. 459 ; tutor, Goldsmith as a, i. 14.
- Treason, high, laws against, iii. 300.
- Treating at elections, iii. 403.
- Tredie, iv. 235.
- Trees, Dr. Hales on, v. 125 ; trimming into shapes, i. 329.
- Trenchard, Mr. John, ii. 448.
- Trepka, Sieur, of Cracovia, ii. 479.
- Trial by combat, i. 281.
- Tricotez (dance), ii. 298.
- Trifler, an important (Beau Tibbs), iii. 203, 206.
- Trifles, iv. 101 ; apparent importance of, iii. 526 ; being laborious in, iii. 332 ; business in, iii. 389 ; placing affections upon, iii. 181 ; pursuing, the lot of humanity, iii. 439.
- Trip, Mr. Thomas, his history, i. 145. *See also* 'Tommy Trip.'
- 'Tristram Shandy,' &c., ridiculed, iii. 199.
- Trocanny (dance), ii. 298.
- Trollop, ii. 229, 325 n.
- Trollopees, ii. 325, 328.
- Trollops, iv. 70.
- Tropes, &c., i. 354, 357, 361.
- Trott, John, ii. 75.
- Trouble, our wisdom and, i. 172.
- Troy, Queen Penthesilea before, i. 317.
- Truck'd = bartered, iii. 65.
- Trueman (brewer), iv. 413 n.
- Truepenny, Mr., the button maker, i. 397.
- Trunk-hose, i. 276.
- Trunk-maker, the, old books sent to, iii. 191.
- Trust, take care whom you, v. 403.
- Truth, disagreeable, i. 474 ; nothing new that is true, i. 157 ; and fiction, ii. 438 ; and learning, iv. 239.
- Tunbridge, iv. 52, 62, 76, 80, 139, 140 ; Beau Nash at, iv. 76, 98, 119 ; and Bath, gaming there, iv. 142, 150.
- Tunbridge Wells. *See* Tunbridge.
- Tunes, "the genteelest of," ii. 227.
- Turner, Dawson, his Goldsmith collections, v. 171 n.
- Turk, the grand, ii. 410.
- Turkish empire overgrown, iii. 64.
- 'Turkish Spy, The,' i. 418, iii. 1 n., iv. 281.
- Turks, the, iii. 127, 417 n.
- Turk's Head, Gerard Street, Soho, The Club there, i. 24.
- Turpin, William, i. 258.
- Turtle-feasts, City, &c., i. 304.
- Turtle's nest, the, ii. 26.
- Turton, Dr. W., attends Goldsmith in his fatal illness, i. 39 ; his edition of Goldsmith's 'Animated Nature,' 1805, v. 184, 187, 190, 191, 200, 207, 244.
- 'Tusculan Disputations of Cicero, The,' (criticism), 1758, iv. 318.

- Tutor, Goldsmith as a, i. 8, 14 n., 473 n.; a travelling, i. 166.
 Twey-case, a, iv. 135 n.
 Twist, Dr., i. 254.
 Twitch, Timothy, ii. 174.
 Tyana. *See* Tyanea.
 Tyanea, Apollonius of, iii. 33.
 Tyburn, ii. 109; a Tyburn ball, iv. 98.
 Tyers, Jonathan, of Vauxhall, iii. 270 n., iv. 479 n.; his house at Dorking, iv. 480 n.
 Tyers Street, Lambeth, iv. 480 n.
 Tyers, Tom, iii. 270 n.
 Tyranny, of laws, iii. 298; and Liberty, i. 149.
 Tyrant's hand, the, ii. 34, l. 37.
 Tyrants, Chinese, iii. 158; the English are their own, iii. 438.
 "Tyrants, a land of," ii. 15, l. 309.
 Tyrrhenes, the, or Etruscans, iv. 310.
- Ufa, forests of, iii. 349.
 Ugliness, Goldsmith's, i. 423? iii. 290. *See also* Portraits, &c.
 Ugly daughter, the exciseman's, i. 405.
 Ugly face, an, i. 156, iii. 290.
 Ulloa, Capts. Don G. Juan and Don A de, v. 194 n.
 Underhill (actor), iii. 538.
 Understanding, the, cultivating, i. 334; the heart and the, i. 130.
 Understandings, microscopic, iii. 332.
 Undertakers and funerals, iii. 382.
 'Unfortunate Merit, Upon,' 1759, ii. 396.
 Ungrateful man, i. 263.
 United Provinces, the. *See* Netherlands, Dutch, &c.
Universal Chronicle, the iii. 458 n.
 Universal histories, v. 132, 136.
 'Universal History,' the, iii. 508 n.; Goldsmith's preface to one, i. 481.
Universal Magazine, Goldsmith's contribution to, iv. 509.
 Universe, the, v. 195.
 Universities, on, iii. 521; different kinds, iii. 523; English and foreign, iii. 501; foreign, open disputations there, i. 13, 167; of Europe and Henry VIII.'s divorce, v. 299; German, iii. 484; poor and rich, iii. 501; of Italy, iii. 482.
 University life, iv. 56.
 Unknown science, iii. 388.
 Upcott collection, i. 486-7 n.
 Ural mountains, the, iii. 348.
 Urban VIII., Pope, his hospital for authors, iii. 314.
 Use and beauty, iv. 242.
 Useful, obscurely, being, v. 162.
 Useless enquiries, v. 93.
 Usher, the, ii. 402, iii. 28; qualifications for, i. 156; tricks on, ii. 403. *See also* Tutor, &c.
 Usquebaugh, i. 394.
 Usurper, character befitting a, v. 330.
 Utopian Philosopher, the, and the hidden gold, v. 402.
 Utrecht, the Peace of, iv. 188.
 Uxbridge, Bolingbroke at, iv. 211, 215.
- V——, Miss, of D——, and Beau Nash, iv. 104.
 'Vagabond, Philosophic, the History of a,' i. 155.
 —— (note), ii. 320.
 Vagabondage in town and country, iii. 431.
 Vaillant, M., on sex in plants, v. 125.
 Vain, the very, are ever flatterers, iv. 113.
 Valentine, Goldsmith's, to his cousin, i. 438 n.
 Valentine morning, i. 84.
 'Valentine's Gift, The,' v. 356 n., 405.
 Valerius Probus, iii. 473.
 Valour, English, iv. 462.
 Vampyre, Major, iii. 183.
 Vanbrugh, i. 57, 399, iv. 418, v. 345; his 'Esop,' iv. 104; his 'Provoked Husband,' iv. 428.
 Van Egmont. *See* Egmont.
 Van Hoey. *See* Hoey, Van.

- Van Ran, iii. 133.
 Van Sprokken, Mr., iii. 132.
 Van Stralenberg. *See* Stralenberg.
 Vane, Sir H., iv. 460.
 Vanini, ii. 412; his 'Amphitheatrum,' ii. 412; his condemnation, ii. 412; on God, ii. 412; on love, iii. 421.
 Vanity, i. 158, ii. 14, l. 275, 185, 213, iii. 428, 446; French, iii. 293; human, ii. 377, iii. 423; old and new, i. 280; and good nature, iii. 291.
 "Vanity Whim," the, ii. 389.
 Vapours, the. *See* Spleen, &c.
 Variations, of text, ii. 10 n. *See also* the notes generally to the several works, and under Poetry, Goldsmith's, &c.
 Variety, iii. 289, 439.
 Vaudevilles, old French, i. 391.
 Vaugelas, his will, iii. 315.
 'Vauxhall, A Visit to,' 1760, iv. 479.
 Vauxhall Gardens, iii. 209, 266, 267, 270, iv. 479 n.; Goldsmith at, iv. 267 n., v. 174 n.; ladies at, iii. 267; Mrs. Tibbs' song there, iii. 269; Addison, Johnson, Boswell, Walpole, &c., on, iii. 267 n.
 Veal, i. 330.
 Verbruggen (actor), iii. 538.
 Veres, the, iii. 455.
 Vegetable diet, Dr. Cheyne's, iv. 132.
 Vegetables, effects of climate on, iii. 340.
 Veneration promoted by obscurity, iii. 201.
 Venice, i. 152, v. 19.
 Vento, Signor, composer, ii. 97.
 Venus, transit of, voyage to observe, ii. 95 n.
 Venus de Medicis, the, i. 337, v. 210.
 Veridicus = Rev. W. Hawkins, iv. 399.
 Vermin-killer, Court, proposed, iii. 396.
 Verse, Goldsmith's systems of, i. 324 n. *See also* Poetry, &c.
 Versification, i. 352, iii. 152, iv. 296, 418.
 'Versification, On,' 1760, i. 381.
 — (notes on), i. 323.
 — (cross-references to), iii. 509, 513.
 'Vicar of Wakefield,' 1764-6, i. 65.
 — origin of, i. 67, 237, 482, iv. 491.
 — expunged passages of, i. 235.
 — 'Ballad' in, attributed to Johnson, v. 175 n.
 — sale of the MS. by Dr. Johnson, i. 19, 20, 66. * * * As we go to press, Mr. Charles Welsh shows in his account of John Newbery that B. Collins, the printer, of Salisbury, "bought of the author" (Oct. 1762) a third share of the 'Vicar' for £21. *See also* under Newbery, and a correspondence in the *Athenæum*, Jan., 1886.
 — (notes on), i. 13, 16, 19, 20, 21, 66, 83, 235-7, 432, ii. 20, 89, 91, v. 133, 407.
 — (criticism of), i. 20, 50, 53, 66, 235.
 — (cross-references to), iii. 245, 358, 516, iv. 3, 71, 91, 154, 296, 345, 425, 428, 491, v. 133, 155, 190, 255.
 Vice, the example of, iii. 248; the passage to, iii. 119; stories of, not profitable, i. 194; the progress of, i. 132; or virtue, a world without, i. 265; and poverty, iii. 30; and the stage, iii. 517.
 Vices of barbarism and civilization, iii. 41; little, and great virtues, iv. 9, 34; old and new, i. 280.
 Vicious, the, friendship amongst, is short-lived, i. 168.
 Victor, Ben, iii. 397.
 Victory, its only triumph is peace, iv. 468; rejoicings for, iv. 462.
 Vida, Marco, ii. 117 n., iii. 480; his 'Christiad,' ii. 118 n.; Pope on, ii. 117 n.; quoted, i. 371, 385.

- ‘Vida’s Game of Chess’ (translation), 1766 (?), ii. 117.
- Village, another deserted, i. 188 ; inn, ii. 37, l. 140 ; preacher, the, ii. 37, l. 140 ; smith, the, ii. 40, l. 245 ; schoolmaster, ii. 39, l. 195 ; sounds, ii. 36, 113 ; sports, ii. 17, 33 ; statesmen, the, ii. 39, l. 223.
- Villette, Marquis of, iv. 210.
- Villiers, George, Duke of Buckingham, iv. 420 n.
- Vincent, Mrs., iii. 294 n., 295, 317 n.
- ‘Vincent and Brent, Mrs. and Miss, a parallel between,’ 1760, iv. 479.
- (cross-reference), iv. 505.
- Vinegar-making, iii. 390.
- Viragos, i. 318.
- Virgil, i. 335, 358, 371, 372, 374, 375, 378, 380, 382, ii. 357, 441, iii. 530, iv. 244, 362 ; Trapp’s, i. 353 ; and Homer, i. 357 ; and Servius, iii. 473.
- Virgin, the, &c., images of, in France, iii. 293.
- “Virgin, the,” and “the Virgin’s kiss”-torture in Germany, &c., v. 137 n.
- Virtue, i. 106 ; carried to excess, ii. 99, l. 36, 219, 314 ; don’t talk too frequently of it, iv. 353 ; on guard, i. 90 ; the only path to true glory, ii. 435 ; pursuit of, iii. 313 ; the road to, iii. 119 ; Miss Skeggs pronounces for, i. 113 ; struggling, ii. 11, l. 155 ; talking of, ii. 378 ; or vice, a world without, i. 265 ; writing on, by those not virtuous themselves, ii. 422 ; and prudence, i. 199 ; and temptation, i. 137.
- “Virtue’s friend,” ii. 36, l. 108.
- Virtues, those called great, ii. 416 ; modest, ii. 379 ; the sterner, ii. 13, l. 233 ; and defects, i. 130.
- Visapour, the king of, iii. 434.
- Vishnu, iii. 308 n.
- Visitation dinner (of clergy), a, iii. 216.
- Vivaldi (composer), i. 394.
- Vodar, son of Odin, iv. 238.
- Voetius, ii. 478.
- Voltaire, i. 450, ii. 343 n., iii. 494, iv. 6, 351, 354, 479 ; in Berlin, iv. 41 ; his character, iv. 9, 34 ; his ‘Contradictions’ translated, ii. 410 ; in England, iv. 24 ; Chetwood’s account, iv. 30 n. ; Goldsmith’s account, iv. 2 n. ; J. C. C.’s account, iv. 2 n., 35 n. ; at Fernay, &c., iv. 46 n. ; at Geneva, ii. 317 ; Goldsmith’s meeting with, iii. 164 n., iv. 24, 470 ; R. Griffiths’ translation of, i. 447 n. ; to Le Févre, iii. 504 ; letters to D’Arget and Piriôt, ii. 317, 340 ; portrait of, iv. 9, 24 ; his return to France, iv. 46 n. ; his works, ii. 317, 323, 340, 341, 410, iii. 69, 163, 305, iv. 277, 278, 279 n., 351, v. 132 n. ; on the author’s hardships, iii. 504 ; on the English, iv. 470 ; on English poets, iv. 355, v. 152 ; on Frederick II., ii. 317 ; on Shakspeare, iv. 355 ; on suicide, iv. 354 ; on toleration, ii. 340 ; on “tradesman’s tragedy,” i. 400 ; on wit, ii. 356 ; Goldsmith’s opinion of, iii. 161, iv. 20 n. ; and Frederick II., ii. 317, 322 ; and Frederick’s sister, ii. 322 ; and Maupertuis, ii. 317 n., 322 ; and Cardinal Polignac, iv. 8, 10.
- ‘Voltaire, Memoirs of M. De,’ about 1759, iv. i.
- (notes on), i. 447, ii. 317, 323, iv. 2, 11, 28, 36.
- (criticism of), i. 450.
- (cross-references), iv. 142, 269, 355, 462, 470, v. 204.
- ‘Voltaire’s Universal History’ (criticism), 1757, iv. 277.
- Vulgar, the, ii. 424 ; applause of, ii. 414 ; alone characteristic, ii. 329 ; in China, iii. 341 ; Eng-

- lish, their courage, iii. 449 ; their ferocity among themselves, iii. 340 ; following, iii. 192 ; the genius of a people lies with, iii. 340 ; men famous with, iii. 392 ; most need religion, ii. 425 ; writing for, ii. 364 ; and the polite, ii. 424. *See also* Poor, &c.
- Vulgar errors of the wise, iii. 251.
- W——, of Bath, iv. 82. *See also* Willshire.
- W——e, Lady, iii. 224.
- W. B., v. 404.
- W. H., and Beau Nash, iv. 118.
- W. H. O. on 'Female Characters,' essay, v. 409 ; on "plagiarism," by Goldsmith, v. 409.
- W. S., signature, v. 413 n.
- Wade, Mother, alias Anne Cassier, i. 317.
- Wakefield, Yorkshire, as site of the 'Vicar' story, i. 66, 238. * * Mr. E. Ford says (*National Review*, May, 1883) that Thornhill, the estate of Sir George Saville, M.P. for York about 1780, was six miles from Wakefield, and he has a theory that the character of Sir William Thornhill (Burchell) in the 'Vicar' was founded upon that of the above M.P. *See also* under Newbery.
- Wales, Princess Dowager of. *See* 'Threnodia,' &c.
- Walker, Dr., iii. 256.
- Walker, Rev. T., hero of Derry, v. 179 n.
- Wall, Captain John, i. 426.
- Waller (? or Wallis) Albany, i. 472.
- Waller, Edmund, iv. 373, 418, 422 ; on Cromwell and Charles II., v. 160 ; his 'Phœbus and Daphne,' v. 160 ; his poem on the death of Cromwell, v. 160 ; quoted, ii. 168.
- Wallis, Albany, i. 472.
- Wallop, Colonel, ii. 239.
- Walpole, Horace, his account of the Cock Lane Ghost, ii. 471 n. ; on the coronation of George III., i. 310 ; on crowds, i. 310 ; on George II. and the accession of George III., i. 315 n. ; his account of Goldsmith and Miss Lloyd, ii. 260 n. ; his dislike of Goldsmith explained, iii. 503 n. ; on Goldsmith, i. 47, 63 n. ; the "inspired idiot" saying not traceable to Horace Walpole, i. 63 n. ; on Johnson, Goldsmith, and other contemporaries, i. 63 n. ; on Mesdames Maintenon and Sévigné, iv. 276 n. ; on party, i. 315 n. ; his description of Ranelagh, iii. 148 n. ; on 'She Stoops to Conquer,' ii. 260 n., 288 ; on Vauxhall, iii. 268 n. ; his 'Letter from Xo Ho,' iii. 1 n. ; and Gray, iv. 296 n.
- Walpole, Sir R., ii. 450, iii. 503, iv. 30, 195, v. 157 ; and Bolingbroke, ii. 448, iv. 213 ; and Swift, iii. 503 n., v. 157.
- Walsh and Pope, iv. 420.
- Walshingham, Lady, iv. 211 n.
- Walton, old (Isaac), v. 239.
- Walworth, Sir William, i. 276 n.
- Wandering, ii. 441, iii. 244, 439.
- Wandering life, a, woes of, ii. 7, l. 24.
- Wanderings, Goldsmith's, ii. 35, l. 83, ii. 319, iii. 238. *See also* Travels, Goldsmith's, France, Goldsmith in, &c.
- Wandsworth, Voltaire at, iv. 27.
- Wang-shu-ho, iii. 257.
- Want, deaths from, v. 204.
- Wants, our, iii. 41, 252 ; conceal your, ii. 343.
- Wapping, iii. 257.
- War, ii. 306, iii. 317, iv. 252, 467, v. 59, 273 ; advocates of, iv. 469.
- 'War, Art of,' Saxe's, reviewed, iv. 264.
- 'War, A Complete History of the

- Present' (Seven Years' War), v. 17 n.
- War, effects of, v. 286; policy of France, v. 28; with France, iii. 86; loss of men in, i. 316; honours of, iii. 155; horrors of, iii. 234; tax upon beer, temp. 1760-1, iii. 403 n.; women in, i. 315. *See also* Wars, &c.
- Warburton on Mallet, iv. 226 n.
- "Warburtons, the," &c., ii. 363.
- Ward, Mr., "the wonder-working," iv. 433 n.
- Ward, Rev. James, iv. 163.
- Ward, Dr. John, iv. 347.
- Wardour Street, iv. 433 n.
- Warner, Dr., George Selwyn's, iii. 220 n.
- Warriors, ii. 387. *See also* Soldiers, &c.
- 'Warriors, Female,' 1762, i. 315.
- Wars, continental, and the English, iii. 91; European, iii. 160; frivolous, iii. 62; of the Roses, the, i. 288; use of, v. 8. *See also* War, &c.
- Warton, Joseph, i. 40 n.
- Warwick Lane, ii. 214.
- Warwick, Lord, at Addison's death-bed, iv. 367.
- Watch, the Chinese loses his, iii. 35.
- Watching and working, i. 261.
- Watchman, the, ii. 376, iii. 422.
- 'Water Parted,' air, ii. 227.
- "Water their clay," i. 279.
- Water-fowl, v. 221, 236.
- Water Lane, Strand, i. 42.
- Water-women, the, of Plymouth, i. 318.
- Watering places, English, iv. 62.
- Waterworks at Vauxhall, iii. 268.
- Watts, Isaac, i. 64 n.
- Wax-work shows, iii. 170.
- "We are the boys that fear no noise," song, ii. 250.
- Wealth, ii. 34, l. 52; accumulation of, i. 150; good and ill of, ii. 15, l. 303; and freedom, ii. 9, l. 91; and law, the bonds of, ii. 16, l. 351; and "the poor's decay," ii. 41, l. 266; and rank, ii. 98, l. 15.
- Wear well, qualities that, i. 71.
- Weather in England, iii. 337.
- Weather-glass, Goody Two-Shoes', v. 392.
- Weavers, distressed, and Beau Nash, iv. 103.
- Webster, B., actor, iv. 114 n.
- Webster, Captain, Nash's predecessor at Bath, iv. 63.
- Wedding, colours for, any but white unlucky, ii. 190; and wooing, ii. 110.
- Weddings, regular and run-away, i. 403.
- Weeds, widows', iii. 354.
- Weepers, mourning, iii. 354.
- Weitten mountains, Goldsmith proposed journey there, iii. 389 n.
- Welch beef, i. 330.
- Wellbridge Fair, the Vicar at, i. 123, 189.
- Welsh, the, iv. 438.
- Welsh bards, the, and Edward I., iv. 299.
- Welsh, Mr. C., on children's books published by Newbery, v. 356, 405, 411; his reprint of 'Goody Two-Shoes,' and theory as to its authorship, v. 350, 357, 406, 411; his account of J. Newbery ('A Bookseller of the Last Century'), v. 408. *See also under* Public Ledger, 'Vicar of Wakefield,' sale of, &c.
- Wentworth, ii. 294.
- Wentworth, Thomas. *See* Straf-ford, Earl of.
- Westminster Abbey, Goldsmith's monument there, i. 40, 60 n.; he visits there the monuments, wax-figures, &c., iii. 46, 47, 393.
- Westminster Hall, a visit to the Courts of Justice at, iii. 359.
- Westminster Magazine, Goldsmith's contributions to, i. 394, 398, 402, iv. 506, v. 414.
- Westphalia, Peace of, 1648, v. 57.
- Whang the Miller, story of, iii. 264.

- Whangham, the, the grasshopper, &c. (fable), iii. 362.
- Whangti, Emperor, iii. 382.
- "When lovely woman stoops to folly," Olivia's song, i. 183.
- "When Spring came on," Parnell's, iv. 174.
- "When thy beauty appears," Parnell's, iv. 174.
- Whig, i. 462; writers of Queen Anne's reign, ii. 450; and Tory, Goldsmith and, v. 176 n.
- Whigs and Tories, under Walpole and Bolingbroke. *See* Life of Bolingbroke generally.
- Whims, iv. 435.
- Whimsicals, the, *i.e.*, Tories who would not join the Jacobites, iv. 193.
- Whisker = beard, iii. 373.
- Whist, Goldsmith at, v. 173 n.
- Whistle-jacket, racehorse, ii. 270.
- Whiston, Dr. William, v. 190; his epitaph on his wife, i. 74; his monogamic theory, i. 74, v. 190 n.; his theory of the creation, v. 190.
- Whistonian controversy, the, i. 123, 133.
- Whitbread (brewer), iv. 413 n.
- White, his 'Nat. Hist. Selborne,' v. 182 n.
- White, Mrs., actress, ii. 146.
- White Conduit House, ii. 328, iii. 441 n., 442.
- White mice story, the, i. 38 n.
- Whitechapel, the 'Three Nuns' Inn there, v. 177 n.
- Whitefoord, Caleb, epitaph on, ii. 59, l. 1.
- Whitehead, William, the poet laureate, and Goldsmith, i. 32.
- White's [Club], ii. 306, iv. 149.
- Whitfield, i. 273.
- 'Whitsuntide Gift,' the, v. 405.
- Whittaker and Co., publishers, v. 166 n.
- Whittington, the story of, ii. 405.
- 'Who fights and runs away,' &c. (attributed), v. 409.
- Whooping-cough. *See* Chin-cough.
- Wickedness, reason and, i. 271.
- Wickliff, his preaching, iv. 440.
- Wickliffites, the, i. 282, v. 286.
- Wida, iii. 414.
- Widow, a, iii. 67; a rich, iii. 105.
- Widow Slumber, the, iv. 472.
- Widows, iii. 89; their weeds, iii. 354.
- Wife, choosing a, i. 71.
- Wig, Goldsmith's, i. 458; Dr. Rock's, iii. 255.
- Wigs, three generations of, iv. 87.
- Wild ducks and flummery, iii. 219.
- Wild notes, Tony Lumbkin's, ii. 249.
- Wildair, Sir Harry, playing, i. 298.
- Wilder, Rev. Theaker, Goldsmith's tutor, i. 5, 6, 15, 60; De Morgan on, i. 61 n.
- Wildgoose, Dick, ii. 336, 337.
- Wildman's, chaired at, ii. 210.
- Wilford, Miss, = Mrs. Bulkley, ii. 289 n.
- Wilhelmina, &c., i. 111. * * This often used name was probably a popular Christian name of the time, consequent upon the fact that the queen of George II. was named Wilhelmina Dorothea Carolina.
- Wilhelmina, Margravine of Bai-reuth, sister of Frederick II. of Prussia, ii. 317, iii. 164.
- Wilkes (Derrick). *See* Wilks.
- Wilkie, Sir D., iv. 288 n.; on a sign painted by, ii. 399 n.
- Wilkie, J., publisher, ii. 302 n.; his *Lady's Magazine*, i. 19.
- Wilkie, Wm., iv. 287 n., 295 n.; his 'Epigoniad,' iv. 287.
- Wilkinson, the butler, i. 152.
- Wilks, Mr., and his 'View of the Stage,' &c., v. 64. *See also* Derrick.
- Will, the ba-lamb, v. 376.
- Willems, Miss, actress, ii. 217.
- William the Conqueror, and his officers, iii. 451.
- William III., iii. 201 n., v. 335, 339, 342; as stadtholder of Holland, v. 54, 335; in Ireland,

- v. 335; plots against, v. 176 n., 339; and Beau Nash, iv. 58; and the dissenters, v. 335; and France, v. 335, 341; and his officers, iii. 456; and the papists, v. 335; and parliament, v. 339; and war, v. 341.
- Williams (?) ii. 47, l. 27.
- Williams, Mrs., v. 371, 374.
- Williams, Rev. Mr., v. 392.
- Willington, James, i. 18, v. 3 n.; his 'Memoirs of a Protestant,' v. 3 n.; Goldsmith uses his name, *ib.*
- 'Wills, Francis, The History of,' i. 238.
- Will's Row, Islington, ii. 300 n.
- Willshire's, Bath. *See* Wiltshire.
- Wilmot, Miss Arabella, i. 75, 153.
- Wilmot, Mr., the deuterogamist, i. 75.
- Wilson, Dr. Thos., iv. 457.
- Wilson, Farmer, v. 361.
- Wilson, Martha and John, v. 387.
- Wilson, Meanwell, v. 353 n.
- Wilson, Mr., his 'Pindaric Essay upon Musick,' v. 156.
- Wiltshire, Bolingbroke and, iv. 186, 189.
- Wiltshire, his rooms, Bath, iv. 62, 84, 89, 107, 111.
- Winchescomb, Sir Henry, iv. 185.
- Wine, old, ii. 220.
- Wine Office Court (No. 6), Goldsmith's lodgings there, i. 19, 20 n., ii. 373 n., iii. 110.
- Winter, insects in, v. 242; the severe, 1739, iv. 102.
- Winterbottom, Miss, ii. 157.
- Wire-walker's, &c., at the theatre, iii. 296.
- Wisdom, the futility of, iii. 138; of the ignorant, iii. 292; pursuit of, iii. 311; true, iii. 31; and Folly, iv. 112; and happiness, iii. 165; our, and trouble, i. 172; and the passions, iii. 178; and simplicity, i. 98; and society, ii. 414; and speculation, i. 267.
- Wise, the, follies of, iv. 171; their road to virtue, iii. 211; vulgar errors of, iii. 251; the Vicar tired of being always wise, i. 107; when a man is, iii. 313.
- Wise, Francis, iv. 304 n.; his 'Enquiries,' &c., iv. 304; and Dr. Johnson, iv. 304 n., 307 n.
- Wise Man of the Mountain, the, v. 402.
- 'Wiseman's Grammar,' Preface to, by Goldsmith (?), i. 483.
- Wises and jongleurs, iv. 334.
- Wistnow = Vishnu, his elephant, iii. 308.
- Wit, i. 290, ii. 306, iii. 520; false, ii. 357, iii. 199; French, iii. 292; vulgar, iii. 202; the harvest of already gathered, iii. 494; a town, i. 93, 132; the trade of, iii. 348; Voltaire on, ii. 356; flattery, and fine clothes, iv. 87; and good humour, iv. 120; and humour, iii. 515; and ill-nature, iii. 511; and laughter, i. 234; and obscenity, iii. 495; and "strokes and dashes," iii. 192; and understanding, i. 129.
- Witch, Goody Two-Shoes taken up for a, v. 391.
- Witchcraft, i. 289; belief in, ii. 439, 459; persecutions for, ii. 438, v. 391; rules of, i. 284.
- Witches, King James's way of trying, ii. 442; "marks" of, ii. 442; persecution of, iii. 260; and magicians, i. 282.
- Wits, the town, i. 132.
- Wives, iii. 89; in China, iii. 364; community of, among the Britons, v. 266; markets for, i. 141; plurality of, iii. 363; and husbands, v. 370.
- Woden, descendants of, iv. 306.
- Woffington, Mrs., iv. 249 n.
- Wolf, the, and the cows, ii. 131, l. 519; and dog, v. 82.
- Wolga, the, pirates of the, iii. 349.
- Wolfe (of Halle), iv. 42.
- Wolfe, General, death of, ii. 78; Goldsmith's alleged relationship

- to, ii. 78 n.; stanzas on his death. *See* 'Quebec, On the taking of,' stanzas.
- Wolsey, iv. 444, v. 292; fall of, v. 298.
- Wolves, Russian, iii. 74.
- Woman betrayed, i. 183; an honest, i. 230; the longing, i. 443; a modest, ii. 234; one of pleasure, iii. 227; of learning, iii. 176; one spoiled by books, iv. 21; a woman rake, iii. 175.
- 'Woman, Stanzas on,' 1766 (?), ii. 91.
- Women, iii. 263, 302; the Amazons, i. 317; of South America, *ib.*; in the army, i. 317; in Asia, iii. 362; of China, iii. 2, 413; of Circassia, iii. 413; Dutch, iii. 493; dunces and pedants, i. 285; English, iii. 34, 35, 302, 411; of Europe, iii. 414; famous, iii. 232; of fashion, in the olden time, i. 284; French, and literature, iii. 292, 493, 506; of Holland, Scotland, and of England, i. 428; of Kashmire, iii. 413; riders, in France, iii. 294; in Russia, iii. 237; Scotch and Irish, i. 421, *sq.*; in the West and East, iii. 223; workers, in Great Britain, i. 318; conversation with, iii. 419; degeneration of, ii. 154; their duties, ii. 349; education of, iii. 328; their fashions, iii. 302; fights between, i. 318; influence of, iii. 363; influence of wit, flattery, and fine clothes on, iv. 87; imprudence in, iv. 92; interpreting them by contraries, i. 89; gaiety in, ii. 436; gaming among, iii. 371; as guides, ii. 320; poems for, v. 150; their rights, iii. 370, v. 265; seclusion from, ii. 233; on side-saddles, iii. 121; temper of, i. 74; theories of the East as to their souls, iii. 363; in town and country, iii. 336; like tradesmen they put all their best goods in the window, ii. 195; their true sphere, iii. 232; vanity of, iv. 21; their judgment of women, i. 178; won by indifference, iv. 87; and Beau Tibbs, iii. 205; and dress, in England and abroad, ii. 324; and learning: *see* History of Hypatia; and love, ii. 418; and men, i. 103; and music should never be dated, ii. 259; and Paradise (Mahomet's), iii. 363; and the spleen, iii. 336: *see also* Beauty, Ladies, Love, Marriage, &c.; old, miserable condition of, ii. 441; old, the nation governed by, i. 316; why they and not men were accused of witchcraft, ii. 441; "a professed admirer of," iv. 56.
- 'Women, Young, Fordyce's Sermons for,' v. 150.
- "Women's man, a," iii. 36, 148.
- Wondering is not the way to grow wise, iii. 521.
- Wonders, popular, iv. 433.
- Wood, architect of Bath, iv. 91, 95, iv. 107 n.; his account of Miss Braddock, iv. 91; his 'Description of Bath,' iv. 91 n.
- Wood-lark, the, v. 229.
- Wooden-shoes, iv. 464; and slavery, i. 152; iii. 432.
- Woodfall, H. S., ii. 59, l. 16.
- Woodfall, Wm., ii. 56, l. 115.
- Woods, tropical, ii. 43, l. 349.
- Woodville, Sir James, ii. 206.
- Woodward, actor, ii. 146, 218; declined the character of Tony Lumpkin, ii. 217 n., 292 n.
- Wooing and wedding, ii. 110.
- Woolsey, T., letter to Goldsmith, v. 179 n.
- Woolwich, v. 202 n.
- Words, emphatical, i. 3, 60; hard, v. 189; playing upon, ii. 358.
- Worgan, J. (composer), i. 390.
- Workers and thinkers, ii. 17, l. 372.
- Working and watching, i. 261.
- Workmen, combinations, &c., of, ii. 385.
- Works, Goldsmith's, editions, &c.,

	coo		
tht	tht	tht	tht
tht	tht	tht	tht
coo	coo	coo	coo
coo	coo	coo	coo
tht	tht	tht	tht
tht	tht	tht	tht

- i. 61, 64, 470, 480, ii. 135, v. 143: *see also* under names of the separate works, and under the names of the several editors, as Evans, Wright, Percy, Reed, Seward, Aikin, Newell, Scott, Campbell, Prior, Irving, H. B., Knight, Mitford, Corney, Cunningham, Dobson, &c.; doubtful works, ii. 136, iii. 409: *see also* under Omissions; lost works, i. 17, 238, 437, 443, 459, 484, iii. 538; uncollected articles, &c., i. 21, 29, 245, 430, 462, iv. 363, 408, 411, 458, v. 412.
- World, the, i. 449; combat with, ii. 36, l. 101; its contradictions, ii. 410; discontent with, i. 263; heed not what it thinks, ii. 336; is a masquerade, ii. 92, l. 12; is pleasing, iii. 231; one half, ignorant of how the other half lives, iii. 428; we live in, v. 195; a world without vice or virtue, i. 265.
- 'World, A General History of the' (Preface), 1764, v. 129.
- (note), i. 482.
- World-taught and book-taught philosophy, iii. 252.
- 'Worldly Grandeur, The Instability of,' 1759, ii. 414.
- Worship by dancing, i. 343; of idols, and men, iii. 280.
- Worth forty thousand pounds, men, i. 252.
- 'Wow-Wow, A, Description of,' 1760, iv. 473.
- "Wretch, the, condemn'd with life to part," ii. 83.
- Wright and Prior's 'Life of Goldsmith,' &c. *See* Prior's (Sir James) 'Life,' &c. * * John Wright, who greatly assisted Sir James Prior in the compilation of Prior's 'Life' and 'Works' of Goldsmith, was the son of Thomas Wright the printer, who collected our author's essays, &c., in 1798. John Wright similarly worked
- V.
- upon Croker's Boswell (the 10 vol. edition of 1835), and later upon Cunningham's edition of Walpole's Letters.
- Wright, Thos., v. 413; his edition of Goldsmith's 'Essays and Criticisms,' 1798, iv. 232, v. 409, 412. *See also* Wright and Reed.
- Wright, T., and Reed, Isaac, their edition of Goldsmith's 'Essays and Criticisms,' iv. 416, 485, 496, 515. *See also* Reed.
- "Write what you think," iii. 512.
- Writer, the good, i. 329.
- Writers, ii. 422. *See also* Authors, &c.
- Writing, fine, i. 391, iii. 516; for the polite and for the vulgar, ii. 364; and preaching, iii. 283; and sculpture, birth of, iv. 309.
- Wycherley, iv. 60 n.; and Pope, iv. 420.
- Wyndham, Chas., v. 410.
- Wyndham, Sir Wm., and Bolingbroke, iv. 227 n.
- Xaizigar, capital of the country of the Daures, iii. 39.
- Xenophon, i. 364, iii. 217, v. 257, 258.
- Xixofou, ii. 416, iii. 16.
- 'Xo Ho, Letters from,' Horace Walpole's, iii. 1 n.
- Yalden, i. 64 n.
- Yaou, or Yau, iii. 239.
- Yaoua to Yaya, letter, iii. 149.
- Yates, Mr., i. 464.
- Yates, Mrs., ii. 96 n., iv. 350 n.
- Yau, or Yaou, iii. 239.
- Yawning, v. 200.
- Year, the lunar, iii. 239 n.
- Yeowell, Mr. J., on the alleged Hudibrastic lines by Goldsmith, ii. 337, v. 409, 412.
- Yokes, golden, iii. 69 n.
- Yonge, Miss, on 'Goody Two-Shoes,' v. 350.
- Yonglo, Emperor, iii. 240.
- York Ball, the, i. 404.

- York, Beau Nash in, iv. 61.
 Yorkshire, Goldsmith in, i. 482 n.
See also under Newbery, John, Wakefield, &c.
 Yorkshire penance, a, iv. 61.
 Young, Dr. Ed., his Letter 'On Original Composition,' iv. 364; Doran's ed. of his works, iv. 364; his epigram on Voltaire, iv. 31 n.; his 'Night Thoughts,' v. 161; quoted, iii. 252; his satires, v. 161; and Goldsmith, ii. 24 n., iii. 503, 538 n., iv. 365; and Richardson, iv. 364; and Voltaire, iv. 30, 31.
 Youth, amusements of, i. 275; counsel to, iii. 310; education of, i. 326, 449, 473, ii. 380, 400, v. 252; follies of, iv. 8; illusions of, i. 475; indiscretions of, ii. 192; juvenile prodigies, i. 327; lessons for, iii. 229; the best lessons for, v. 66; levity in, miseries attending, i. 92; novels injurious to, i. 449; passions in, iii. 501; sensibility in, i. 449; studies for, v. 255.
 Youth and age, i. 275.
 Zachary, the spirit husband, ii. 478.
 'Zadig,' Voltaire's, iii. 69 n.
 'Zaïre,' Voltaire's, ii. 341, iv. 30 n.
 Zeal, mistaken, iv. 182.
 Zebra, the, v. 211.
 Zeck, Luke and George, ii. 18 n.
 Zecklers. *See* Keck.
 Zelis, the beautiful captive, iii. 135, 136, 138, 221, 223, 286, 348, 365, 419, 443.
 Zend. *See* Zendavesta.
 Zendavesta, the, iii. 33 n., 57, 139, 142, 308.
 'Zenim and Galhinda,' 1761, iv. 501.
 Zeno, Apostolo, iii. 490.
 'Zenobia,' Murphy's, ii. 115 n.
 Zerdusht, iii. 33.
 Zeuxis, painter, i. 338.
 Zimpo, iii. 129.
 'Zobeide,' Cradock's, ii. 95 n.
 'Zobeide, Prologue to,' 1771, ii. 95.
 — (note) i. 464.
 Zoilus, "the scourge of Homer," ii. 363.
 'Zoilus, Life of,' Parnell's, iv. 177.
 Zoroaster, iii. 33, 57 n., 138, 401.

ERRATA, ETC.

VOL. I.

Page 20, line last, and the first lines of page 21. For correction of the statement here, that John Newbery did not purchase the MS. of the 'Vicar of Wakefield,' see vol. v., p. 407, also the Index entries under Newbery, 'Vicar of Wakefield,' sale of, &c.

Page 58, note 5. H. B.'s edition of Goldsmith was first published some time before 1833. See under H. B. in the Index.

Page 67. The title-page to the fifth edition of the 'Vicar of Wakefield' promised in the note at this page was accidentally omitted. Had it been given it would have run thus:—"The/ Vicar/ of/ Wakefield:/ A Tale./ *Sperate miseri, cavete felices.*/ The Fifth Edition./ In Two Volumes./ London:/ Printed for T. Carnan and F. Newbery jun./ at Number 65 in St. Paul's Church-Yard./ MDCCLXXIII."

Page 254, note 1, line last. For fourth vol. read second vol., p. 457.

Page 255, note, line 4. For vol. iv. read vol v.

Some other references in the earlier vols. are erroneous in this way. They are due to the fact that the work originally planned to be complete in four volumes has run to five volumes.

* * The earlier references to Boswell's Johnson are to the 10 vol. edition (Wright's edition of Croker), and the later are to Bohn's Standard Library Edition (Napier's), 6 vols., 1884.

VOL. II.

Page 201, note, line 3. For vol. iv. read vol. i. p. 402.

Page 214, note 2. For Mr. Piozzi read Mrs. Piozzi.

VOL. III.

Page 301, note, line 10. For Tom Payne read Tom Paine.

VOL. IV.

Page 138, note 3, line 3. For p. 153 read p. 154.

Page 214, note 1, line 2. For (Pulteney) read (Nicholas Amhurst).

* * For some notes omitted from the body of the work see the Index, as under 'Vicar of Wakefield,' sale of, Almack's, Anodyne necklace, *Public Ledger*, Newbery, Sterne, &c. &c.

ERRATA

Vol. I

The first error in the first issue of Vol. I, No. 1, was in the title of the first article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. I, No. 2.

The second error in the first issue of Vol. I, No. 1, was in the title of the second article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. I, No. 2.

The third error in the first issue of Vol. I, No. 1, was in the title of the third article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. I, No. 2.

The fourth error in the first issue of Vol. I, No. 1, was in the title of the fourth article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. I, No. 2.

The fifth error in the first issue of Vol. I, No. 1, was in the title of the fifth article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. I, No. 2.

Vol. II

The first error in the first issue of Vol. II, No. 1, was in the title of the first article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. II, No. 2.

Vol. III

The first error in the first issue of Vol. III, No. 1, was in the title of the first article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. III, No. 2.

Vol. IV

The first error in the first issue of Vol. IV, No. 1, was in the title of the first article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. IV, No. 2.

The second error in the first issue of Vol. IV, No. 1, was in the title of the second article, which should have been "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time" instead of "The History of the City of New York, from its first settlement to the present time." This error was corrected in the second issue of Vol. IV, No. 2.

Vol. V

*CATALOGUE OF
BOHN'S LIBRARIES.*

N.B.—It is requested that all orders be accompanied by payment. Books are sent carriage free on the receipt of the published price in stamps or otherwise.

The Works to which the letters 'N. S.' (denoting New Style) are appended are kept in neat cloth bindings of various colours, as well as in the regular Library style. All Orders are executed in the New binding, unless the contrary is expressly stated.

Complete Sets or Separate Volumes can be had at short notice, half-bound in calf or morocco.

New Volumes of Standard Works in the various branches of Literature are constantly being added to this Series, which is already unsurpassed in respect to the number, variety, and cheapness of the Works contained in it. The Publishers have to announce the following Volumes as recently issued or now in preparation:—

- | | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| Boswell's Life of Johnson. | New Edition. | 6 vols. | |
| | | | [Ready, see p. 1. |
| Vasari's Lives of the Painters. | Additional Notes by | | |
| J. P. Richter. | | | Ready, see p. 8. |
| Roger Ascham's Scholemaster. | Edited by Prof. Mayor. | | |
| Grimm's German Tales. | 2 vols. | With the Notes of the | |
| Original. | | | [Ready, see p. 5. |
| Coleridge's Table-Talk, &c. | | | [Ready, see p. 4. |
| Coleridge's Miscellaneous Works. | | | [In the press. |
| Manual of Philosophy. | By E. Belfort Bax. | 1 vol. | |
| Goldsmith's Works. | Vols. I. and II. | | [Ready, see p. 5. |
| Fairholt's History of Costume. | | | [In the press. |
| Hoffmann's Stories. | Translated by Major Ewing. | | |
| | | | [In the press. |

LONDON : G. BELL & SONS, 4 YORK STREET, COVENT GARDEN.

BOHN'S LIBRARIES.

STANDARD LIBRARY.

294 Vols. at 3s. 6d. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (51l. 10s. 6d. per set.)

ADDISON'S Works. Notes of Bishop Hurd. Short Memoir, Portrait, and 8 Plates of Medals. 6 vols. *N. S.*

This is the most complete edition of Addison's Works issued.

ALFIERI'S Tragedies. In English Verse. With Notes, Arguments, and Introduction, by E. A. Bowring, C.B. 2 vols. *N. S.*

AMERICAN POETRY.—*See Poetry of America.*

ASCHAM'S Scholemaster. Edit. by Prof. J. E. B. Mayor. [*In the press.*]

BACON'S Moral and Historical Works, including Essays, Apophthegms, Wisdom of the Ancients, New Atlantis, Henry VII., Henry VIII., Elizabeth, Henry Prince of Wales, History of Great Britain, Julius Cæsar, and Augustus Cæsar. With Critical and Biographical Introduction and Notes by J. Devey, M.A. Portrait. *N. S.*

— *See also Philosophical Library.*

BALLADS AND SONGS of the Peasantry of England, from Oral Recitation, private MSS., Broad-sides, &c. Edit. by R. Bell. *N. S.*

BEAUMONT AND FLETCHER. Selections. With Notes and Introduction by Leigh Hunt.

BECKMANN (J.) History of Inventions, Discoveries, and Origins. With Portraits of Beckmann and James Watt. 2 vols. *N. S.*

BELL (Robert).—*See Ballads, Chaucer, Green.*

BOSWELL'S Life of Johnson, with the TOUR in the HEBRIDES and JOHNSONIANA. New Edition, with Notes and Appendices, by the Rev. A. Napier, M.A., Trinity College, Cambridge, Vicar of Holkham, Editor of the Cambridge Edition of the 'Theological Works' of Barrow. With Frontispiece to each vol. 6 vols. *N. S.*

BREMER'S (Frederika) Works. Trans. by M. Howitt. Portrait. 4 vols. *N. S.*

BRINK (B. T.) Early English Literature (to Wiclif). By Bernhard Ten Brink. Trans. by Prof. H. M. Kennedy. *N. S.*

BRITISH POETS, from Milton to Kirke White. Cabinet Edition. With Frontispiece. 4 vols. *N. S.*

BROWNE'S (Sir Thomas) Works. Edit. by S. Wilkin, with Dr. Johnson's Life of Browne. Portrait. 3 vols.

BURKE'S Works. 6 vols. *N. S.*

— **Speeches on the Impeachment** of Warren Hastings; and Letters. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— **Life.** By J. Prior. Portrait. *N. S.*

BURNS (Robert). Life of. By J. G. Lockhart, D.C.L. A new and enlarged edition. With Notes and Appendices by W. S. Douglas. Portrait. *N. S.*

BUTLER'S (Bp.) Analogy of Religion; Natural and Revealed, to the Constitution and Course of Nature; with Two Dissertations on Identity and Virtue, and Fifteen Sermons. With Introductions, Notes, and Memoir. Portrait. *N. S.*

CAMOEN'S Lusiad, or the Discovery of India. An Epic Poem. Trans. from the Portuguese, with Dissertation, Historical Sketch, and Life, by W. J. Mickle. 5th edition. *N. S.*

CARAFAS (The) of Maddaloni. Naples under Spanish Dominion. Trans. by Alfred de Reumont. Portrait of Masaniello.

CARREL. The Counter-Revolution in England for the Re-establishment of Popery under Charles II. and James II., by Armand Carrel; with Fox's History of James II. and Lord Lonsdale's Memoir of James II. Portrait of Carrel.

CARRUTHERS.—*See Pope, in Illustrated Library.*

CARY'S Dante. The Vision of Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. Trans. by Rev. H. F. Cary, M.A. With Life, Chronological View of his Age, Notes, and Index of Proper Names. Portrait. *N. S.*

This is the authentic edition, containing Mr. Cary's last corrections, with additional notes.

CELLINI (Benvenuto). Memoirs of, by himself. With Notes of G. P. Carpani. Trans. by T. Roscoe. Portrait. *N. S.*

CERVANTES' Galatea. A Pastoral Romance. Trans. by G. W. J. Gyll. *N. S.*

— **Exemplary Novels.** Trans. by W. K. Kelly. *N. S.*

— **Don Quixote de la Mancha.** Motteux's Translation revised. With Lockhart's Life and Notes. 2 vols. *N. S.*

CHAUCER'S Poetical Works. With Poems formerly attributed to him. With a Memoir, Introduction, Notes, and a Glossary, by R. Bell. Improved edition, with Preliminary Essay by Rev. W. W. Skeat, M.A. Portrait. 4 vols. *N. S.*

CLASSIC TALES, containing Rasselas, Vicar of Wakefield, Gulliver's Travels, and The Sentimental Journey. *N. S.*

COLERIDGE'S (S. T.) Friend. A Series of Essays on Morals, Politics, and Religion. Portrait. *N. S.*

— **Confessions of an Inquiring Spirit;** and Essays on Faith and the Common Prayer-book. New Edition, revised. *N. S.*

— **Aids to Reflection.** *N. S.*

— **Table-Talk and Omniana.** By T. Ashe, B.A. *N. S.*

— **Lectures on Shakspeare and other Poets.** Edit. by T. Ashe, B.A. *N. S.*
Containing the lectures taken down in 1811-12 by J. P. Collier, and those delivered at Bristol in 1813.

— **Biographia Literaria; or, Biographical Sketches of my Literary Life and Opinions;** with Two Lay Sermons. *N. S.*

COMMINES.—*See Philip.*

CONDÉ'S History of the Dominion of the Arabs in Spain. Trans. by Mrs. Foster. Portrait of Abderahmen ben Moavia. 3 vols.

COWPER'S Complete Works, Poems, Correspondence, and Translations. Edit. with Memoir by R. Southey. 45 Engravings. 8 vols.

COXE'S Memoirs of the Duke of Marlborough. With his original Correspondence, from family records at Blenheim. Revised edition. Portraits. 3 vols.

* * * An Atlas of the plans of Marlborough's campaigns, 4to. 10s. 6d.

COXE'S History of the House of Austria. From the Foundation of the Monarchy by Rhodolph of Hapsburgh to the Death of Leopold II., 1218-1792. By Archdn. Coxe. With Continuation from the Accession of Francis I. to the Revolution of 1848. 4 Portraits. 4 vols.

CUNNINGHAM'S Lives of the most Eminent British Painters. With Notes and 16 fresh Lives by Mrs. Heaton. 3 vols. *N. S.*

DEFOE'S Novels and Miscellaneous Works. With Prefaces and Notes, including those attributed to Sir W. Scott. Portrait. 7 vols. *N. S.*

DE LOLME'S Constitution of England, in which it is compared both with the Republican form of Government and the other Monarchies of Europe. Edit., with Life and Notes, by J. Macgregor, M.P.

EMERSON'S Works. 3 vols. Most complete edition published. *N. S.*

Vol. I.—Essays, Lectures, and Poems.

Vol. II.—English Traits, Nature, and Conduct of Life.

Vol. III.—Society and Solitude—Letters and Social Aims—Miscellaneous Papers (hitherto uncollected)—May-Day, &c.

FOSTER'S (John) Life and Correspondence. Edit. by J. E. Ryland. Portrait. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— **Lectures at Broadmead Chapel.** Edit. by J. E. Ryland. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— **Critical Essays contributed to the 'Eclectic Review.'** Edit. by J. E. Ryland. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— **Essays: On Decision of Character;** on a Man's writing Memoirs of Himself; on the epithet Romantic; on the aversion of Men of Taste to Evangelical Religion. *N. S.*

— **Essays on the Evils of Popular Ignorance,** and a Discourse on the Propagation of Christianity in India. *N. S.*

— **Fosteriana:** selected from periodical papers, edit. by H. G. Bohn. 5s. *N. S.*

FOX (Rt. Hon. C. J.)—*See Carrel.*

GIBBON'S Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. Complete and unabridged, with variorum Notes; including those of Guizot, Wenck, Niebuhr, Hugo, Neander, and others. 7 vols. 2 Maps and Portrait. *N. S.*

GOETHE'S Works. Trans. into English by E. A. Bowering, C.B., Anna Swanwick, Sir Walter Scott, &c. &c. 12 vols. *N. S.*

Vols. I. and II.—Autobiography and Annals. Portrait.

Vol. III.—Faust. Complete.

GOETHE'S Works.—*Continued.*

Vol. IV.—Novels and Tales: containing Elective Affinities, Sorrows of Werther, The German Emigrants, The Good Women, and a Nouvelette.

Vol. V.—Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship.

Vol. VI.—Conversations with Eckerman and Soret.

Vol. VII.—Poems and Ballads in the original Metres, including Hermann and Dorothea.

Vol. VIII.—Götz von Berlichingen, Torquato Tasso, Egmont, Iphigenia, Clavigo, Wayward Lover, and Fellow Culprits.

Vol. IX.—Wilhelm Meister's Travels. Complete Edition.

Vol. X.—Tour in Italy. Two Parts. And Second Residence in Rome.

Vol. XI.—Miscellaneous Travels, Letters from Switzerland, Campaign in France, Siege of Mainz, and Rhine Tour.

Vol. XII.—Early and Miscellaneous Letters, including Letters to his Mother, with Biography and Notes. Edited by Edw. Bell, M.A.

— **Correspondence with Schiller.** 2 vols.—*See Schiller.*

GOLDSMITH'S Works. 5 vols. *N.S.*

Vol. I.—Life, Vicar of Wakefield, Essays, and Letters.

Vol. II.—Poems, Plays, Bee, Cock Lane Ghost.

[Vols. III. and IV. *in the press.*

GREENE, MARLOW, and BEN JONSON (Poems of). With Notes and Memoirs by R. Bell. *N.S.*

GREGORY'S (Dr.) The Evidences, Doctrines, and Duties of the Christian Religion.

GRIMM'S Household Tales. With the Original Notes. Trans. by Mrs. A. Hunt. Introduction by Andrew Lang, M.A. 2 vols. *N.S.*

GUIZOT'S History of Representative Government in Europe. Trans. by A. R. Scoble.

— **English Revolution of 1640.** From the Accession of Charles I. to his Death. Trans. by W. Hazlitt. Portrait.

— **History of Civilisation.** From the Roman Empire to the French Revolution. Trans. by W. Hazlitt. Portraits. 3 vols.

HALL'S (Rev. Robert) Works and Remains. Memoir by Dr. Gregory and Essay by J. Foster. Portrait.

HAWTHORNE'S Tales. 3 vols. *N.S.*
Vol. I.—Twice-told Tales, and the Snow Image.

Vol. II.—Scarlet Letter, and the House with Seven Gables.

Vol. III.—Transformation, and Blithedale Romance.

HAZLITT'S (W.) Works. 6 vols. *N.S.*
— **Table-Talk.**

— **The Literature of the Age of Elizabeth and Characters of Shakespeare's Plays.** *N.S.*

— **English Poets and English Comic Writers.** *N.S.*

HAZLITT'S (W.) Works.—*Continued.*

— **The Plain Speaker.** Opinions on Books, Men, and Things. *N.S.*

— **Round Table.** Conversations of James Northcote, R.A.; Characteristics. *N.S.*

— **Sketches and Essays, and Winter-slow.** *N.S.*

HEINE'S Poems. Translated in the original Metres, with Life by E. A. Bowring, C.B. 5s. *N.S.*

HUNGARY: its History and Revolution, with Memoir of Kossuth. Portrait.

HUTCHINSON (Colonel). Memoirs of. By his Widow, with her Autobiography, and the Siege of Lathom House. Portrait. *N.S.*

IRVING'S (Washington) Complete Works. 15 vols. *N.S.*

— **Life and Letters.** By his Nephew, Pierre E. Irving. With Index and a Portrait. 2 vols. *N.S.*

JAMES'S (G. P. R.) Life of Richard Cœur de Lion. Portraits of Richard and Philip Augustus. 2 vols.

— **Louis XIV.** Portraits. 2 vols.

JAMESON (Mrs.) Shakespeare's Heroines. Characteristics of Women. By Mrs. Jameson. *N.S.*

JEAN PAUL.—*See Richter.*

JONSON (Ben). Poems of.—*See Greene.*

JUNIUS'S Letters. With Woodfall's Notes. An Essay on the Authorship. Facsimiles of Handwriting. 2 vols. *N.S.*

LA FONTAINE'S Fables. In English Verse, with Essay on the Fabulists. By Elizur Wright. *N.S.*

LAMARTINE'S The Girondists, or Personal Memoirs of the Patriots of the French Revolution. Trans. by H. T. Ryde. Portraits of Robespierre, Madame Roland, and Charlotte Corday. 3 vols.

— **The Restoration of Monarchy in France** (a Sequel to The Girondists). 5 Portraits. 4 vols.

— **The French Revolution of 1848.** 6 Portraits.

LAMB'S (Charles) Elia and Eliana. Complete Edition. Portrait. *N.S.*

— **Specimens of English Dramatic Poets of the time of Elizabeth.** Notes, with the Extracts from the Garrick Plays. *N.S.*

LAPPENBERG'S *England under the Anglo-Saxon Kings.* Trans. by B. Thorpe, F.S.A. 2 vols. *N. S.*

LANZI'S *History of Painting in Italy, from the Period of the Revival of the Fine Arts to the End of the 18th Century.* With Memoir of the Author. Portraits of Raffaele, Titian, and Correggio, after the Artists themselves. Trans. by T. Roscoe. 3 vols.

LESSING'S *Dramatic Works.* Complete. By E. Bell, M.A. With Memoir by H. Zimmern. Portrait. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— **Laokoon, Dramatic Notes, and Representation of Death by the Ancients.** Frontispiece. *N. S.*

LOCKE'S *Philosophical Works,* containing Human Understanding, with Bishop of Worcester, Malebranche's Opinions, Natural Philosophy, Reading and Study. With Preliminary Discourse, Analysis, and Notes, by J. A. St. John. Portrait. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— **Life and Letters,** with Extracts from his Common-place Books. By Lord King.

LOCKHART (J. G.)—*See Burns.*

LONSDALE (Lord)—*See Carrel.*

LUTHER'S *Table-Talk.* Trans. by W. Hazlitt. With Life by A. Chalmers, and **LUTHER'S CATECHISM.** Portrait after Cranach. *N. S.*

— **Autobiography.**—*See Michelet.*

MACHIAVELLI'S *History of Florence, THE PRINCE, Savonarola, Historical Tracts, and Memoir.* Portrait. *N. S.*

MARLOWE. *Poems of.*—*See Greene.*

MARTINEAU'S (Harriet) *History of England (including History of the Peace) from 1800-1846.* 5 vols. *N. S.*

MENZEL'S *History of Germany, from the Earliest Period to the Crimean War.* 3 Portraits. 3 vols.

MICHELET'S *Autobiography of Luther.* Trans. by W. Hazlitt. With Notes. *N. S.*

— **The French Revolution to the Flight of the King in 1791.** *N. S.*

MIGNET'S *The French Revolution, from 1789 to 1814.* Portrait of Napoleon. *N. S.*

MILTON'S *Prose Works.* With Preface, Preliminary Remarks by J. A. St. John, and Index. 5 vols.

MITFORD'S (Miss) *Our Village.* Sketches of Rural Character and Scenery. 2 Engravings. 2 vols. *N. S.*

MOLIÈRE'S *Dramatic Works.* In English Prose, by C. H. Wall. With a Life and a Portrait. 3 vols. *N. S.*

'It is not too much to say that we have here probably as good a translation of Molière as can be given.'—*Academy.*

MONTESQUIEU'S *Spirit of Laws.* Revised Edition, with D'Alembert's Analysis, Notes, and Memoir. 2 vols. *N. S.*

NEANDER (Dr. A.) *History of the Christian Religion and Church.* Trans. by J. Torrey. With Short Memoir. 10 vols.

— **Life of Jesus Christ, in its Historical Connexion and Development.** *N. S.*

— **The Planting and Training of the Christian Church by the Apostles.** With the Antignosticus, or Spirit of Tertullian. Trans. by J. E. Ryland. 2 vols.

— **Lectures on the History of Christian Dogmas.** Trans. by J. E. Ryland. 2 vols.

— **Memorials of Christian Life in the Early and Middle Ages; including Light in Dark Places.** Trans. by J. E. Ryland.

OCKLEY (S.) *History of the Saracens and their Conquests in Syria, Persia, and Egypt.* Comprising the Lives of Mohammed and his Successors to the Death of Abdalmelik, the Eleventh Caliph. By Simon Ockley, B.D., Prof. of Arabic in Univ. of Cambridge. Portrait of Mohammed.

PERCY'S *Reliques of Ancient English Poetry,* consisting of Ballads, Songs, and other Pieces of our earlier Poets, with some few of later date. With Essay on Ancient Minstrels, and Glossary. 2 vols. *N. S.*

PHILIP DE COMMINES. *Memoirs of.* Containing the Histories of Louis XI. and Charles VIII., and Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy. With the History of Louis XI., by J. de Troyes. With a Life and Notes by A. R. Scoble. Portraits. 2 vols.

PLUTARCH'S LIVES. Newly Translated, with Notes and Life, by A. Stewart, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, and G. Long, M.A. 4 vols. *N. S.*

POETRY OF AMERICA. *Selections from One Hundred Poets, from 1776 to 1876.* With Introductory Review, and Specimens of Negro Melody, by W. J. Linton. Portrait of W. Whitman. *N. S.*

RANKE (L.) *History of the Popes, their Church and State, and their Conflicts with Protestantism in the 16th and 17th Centuries.* Trans. by E. Foster. Portraits of Julius II. (after Raphael), Innocent X. (after Velasquez); and Clement VII. (after Titian). 3 vols. *N. S.*

— **History of Servia.** Trans. by Mrs. Kerr. To which is added, *The Slave Provinces of Turkey,* by Cyprien Robert. *N. S.*

REUMONT (Alfred de).—*See Carafas.*

hed hed
hed hed
hed hed

hed hed hed hed

REYNOLDS' (Sir J.) Literary Works. With Memoir and Remarks by H. W. Beechy. 2 vols. *N. S.*

RICHTER (Jean Paul). *Levana*, a Treatise on Education; together with the Autobiography, and a short Memoir. *N. S.*

— **Flower, Fruit, and Thorn Pieces**, or the Wedded Life, Death, and Marriage of Siebenkaes. Translated by Alex. Ewing. *N. S.*

The only complete English translation.

ROSCOE'S (W.) Life of Leo X., with Notes, Historical Documents, and Dissertation on Lucretia Borgia. 3 Portraits. 2 vols.

— **Lorenzo de' Medici**, called 'The Magnificent,' with Copyright Notes, Poems, Letters, &c. With Memoir of Roscoe and Portrait of Lorenzo.

RUSSIA, History of, from the earliest Period to the Crimean War. By W. K. Kelly. 3 Portraits. 2 vols.

SCHILLER'S Works. 6 vols. *N. S.*

Vol. I.—Thirty Years' War—Revolt in the Netherlands. Rev. A. J. W. Morrison, M.A. Portrait.

Vol. II.—Revolt in the Netherlands, *completed*—Wallenstein. By J. Churchill and S. T. Coleridge.—William Tell. Sir Theodore Martin. Engraving (after Vandyck).

Vol. III.—Don Carlos. R. D. Boylan—Mary Stuart. Mellish—Maid of Orleans. Anna Swanwick—Bride of Messina. A. Lodge, M.A. Together with the Use of the Chorus in Tragedy (a short Essay). Engravings.

These Dramas are all translated in metre.

Vol. IV.—Robbers—Fiesco—Love and Intrigue—Demetrius—Ghost Seer—Sport of Divinity.

The Dramas in this volume are in prose.

Vol. V.—Poems. E. A. Bowring, C.B.

Vol. VI.—Essays, *Æsthetical* and *Philosophical*, including the Dissertation on the Connexion between the Animal and Spiritual in Man.

SCHILLER and GOETHE. Correspondence between, from A.D. 1794-1805. With Short Notes by L. Dora Schmitz. 2 vols. *N. S.*

SCHLEGEL'S (F.) Lectures on the Philosophy of Life and the Philosophy of Language. By A. J. W. Morrison.

— **The History of Literature**, Ancient and Modern.

— **The Philosophy of History.** With Memoir and Portrait.

SCHLEGEL'S Works.—*Continued.*

— **Modern History**, with the Lectures entitled *Cæsar and Alexander*, and *The Beginning of our History*. By L. Purcell and R. H. Whitelock.

— **Æsthetic and Miscellaneous Works**, containing Letters on Christian Art, Essay on Gothic Architecture, Remarks on the Romance Poetry of the Middle Ages, on Shakspeare, the Limits of the Beautiful, and on the Language and Wisdom of the Indians. By E. J. Millington.

SCHLEGEL (A. W.) Dramatic Art and Literature. By J. Black. With Memoir by A. J. W. Morrison. Portrait.

SHAKESPEARE'S Dramatic Art. The History and Character of Shakspeare's Plays. By Dr. H. Ulrici. Trans. by L. Dora Schmitz. 2 vols. *N. S.*

SHERIDAN'S Dramatic Works. With Memoir. Portrait (after Reynolds). *N. S.*

SKEAT (Rev. W. W.)—*See Chaucer.*

SISMONDI'S History of the Literature of the South of Europe. With Notes and Memoir by T. Roscoe. Portraits of Sismondi and Dante. 2 vols.

The specimens of early French, Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese Poetry, in English Verse, by Cary and others.

SMITH'S (Adam) Theory of Moral Sentiments; with Essay on the First Formation of Languages, and Critical Memoir by Dugald Stewart.

SMYTH'S (Professor) Lectures on Modern History; from the Irruption of the Northern Nations to the close of the American Revolution. 2 vols.

— **Lectures on the French Revolution.** With Index. 2 vols.

SOUTHEY.—*See Cowper, Wesley, and (Illustrated Library) Nelson.*

STURM'S Morning Communings with God, or Devotional Meditations for Every Day. Trans. by W. Johnstone, M.A.

SULLY. Memoirs of the Duke of, Prime Minister to Henry the Great. With Notes and Historical Introduction. 4 Portraits. 4 vols.

TAYLOR'S (Bishop Jeremy) Holy Living and Dying, with Prayers, containing the Whole Duty of a Christian and the parts of Devotion fitted to all Occasions. Portrait. *N. S.*

THIERRY'S Conquest of England by the Normans; its Causes, and its Consequences in England and the Continent. By W. Hazlitt. With short Memoir. 2 Portraits. 2 vols. *N. S.*

TROYE'S (Jean de).—*See Philip de Commines.*

ULRICI (Dr.).—*See Shakespeare.*

VASARI. *Lives of the most Eminent Painters, Sculptors, and Architects.* By Mrs. J. Foster, with selected Notes. Portrait. 6 vols., Vol. VI. being an additional Volume of Notes by J. P. Richter. *N. S.*

WESLEY, the *Life of, and the Rise and Progress of Methodism.* By Robert Southey. Portrait. 5s. *N. S.*

WHEATLEY. *A Rational Illustration of the Book of Common Prayer, being the Substance of everything Liturgical in all former Ritualist Commentators upon the subject.* Frontispiece. *N. S.*

HISTORICAL LIBRARY.

21 Volumes at 5s. each. (5l. 5s. per set.)

EVELYN'S *Diary and Correspondence*, with the Private Correspondence of Charles I. and Sir Edward Nicholas, and between Sir Edward Hyde (Earl of Clarendon) and Sir Richard Browne. Edited from the Original MSS. by W. Bray, F.A.S. 4 vols. *N. S.* 45 Engravings (after Vandyke, Lely, Kneller, and Jamieson, &c.).

N.B.—This edition contains 130 letters from Evelyn and his wife, contained in no other edition.

PEPYS' *Diary and Correspondence.* With Life and Notes, by Lord Braybrooke. 4 vols. *N. S.* With Appendix containing additional Letters, an Index, and 31 Engravings (after Vandyke, Sir P. Lely, Holbein, Kneller, &c.).

JESSE'S *Memoirs of the Court of England under the Stuarts, including the Protectorate.* 3 vols. With Index and 42 Portraits (after Vandyke, Lely, &c.).

— *Memoirs of the Pretenders and their Adherents.* 7 Portraits.

NUGENT'S (Lord) *Memorials of Hampden, his Party and Times.* With Memoir. 12 Portraits (after Vandyke and others). *N. S.*

STRICKLAND'S (Agnes) *Lives of the Queens of England from the Norman Conquest.* From authentic Documents, public and private. 6 Portraits. 6 vols. *N. S.*

— *Life of Mary Queen of Scots.* 2 Portraits. 2 vols. *N. S.*

PHILOSOPHICAL LIBRARY.

15 Vols. at 5s. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (3l. 9s. 0d. per set.)

BACON'S *Novum Organum and Advancement of Learning.* With Notes by J. Devey, M.A.

COMTE'S *Philosophy of the Sciences.* An Exposition of the Principles of the *Cours de Philosophie Positive.* By G. H. Lewes, Author of 'The Life of Goethe.'

DRAPER (Dr. J. W.) *A History of the Intellectual Development of Europe.* 2 vols. *N. S.*

HEGEL'S *Philosophy of History.* By J. Sibree, M.A.

KANT'S *Critique of Pure Reason.* By J. M. D. Meiklejohn. *N. S.*

— *Prolegomena and Metaphysical Foundations of Natural Science*, with Biography and Memoir by E. Belfort Bax. Portrait. *N. S.*

LOGIC, or the Science of Inference. A Popular Manual. By J. Devey.

MILLER (Professor). *History Philosophically Illustrated*, from the Fall of the Roman Empire to the French Revolution. With Memoir. 4 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

SPINOZA'S *Chief Works.* Trans. with Introduction by R. H. M. Elwes. 2 vols. *N. S.*

Vol. I.—*Tractatus Theologico-Politicus*—Political Treatise.

Vol. II.—*Improvement of the Understanding*—Ethics—Letters.

TENNEMANN'S *Manual of the History of Philosophy.* Trans. by Rev. A. Johnson, M.A.

THEOLOGICAL LIBRARY.

15 Vols. at 5s. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (3l. 13s. 6d. per set.)

BLEEK. Introduction to the Old Testament. By Friedrich Bleek. Trans. under the supervision of Rev. E. Venables, Residentiary Canon of Lincoln. 2 vols. N. S.

CHILLINGWORTH'S Religion of Protestants. 3s. 6d.

EUSEBIUS. Ecclesiastical History of Eusebius Pamphilius, Bishop of Cæsarea. Trans. by Rev. C. F. Cruse, M.A. With Notes, Life, and Chronological Tables.

EVAGRIUS. History of the Church. —See *Theodoret*.

HARDWICK. History of the Articles of Religion; to which is added a Series of Documents from A.D. 1536 to A.D. 1615. Ed. by Rev. F. Proctor. N. S.

HENRY'S (Matthew) Exposition of the Book of Psalms. Numerous Woodcuts.

PEARSON (John, D.D.) Exposition of the Creed. Edit. by E. Walford, M.A. With Notes, Analysis, and Indexes. N. S.

PHILO-JUDEUS, Works of. The Contemporary of Josephus. Trans. by C. D. Yonge. 4 vols.

PHILOSTORGIUS. Ecclesiastical History of.—See *Sozomen*.

SOCRATES' Ecclesiastical History. Comprising a History of the Church from Constantine, A.D. 305, to the 38th year of Theodosius II. With Short Account of the Author, and selected Notes.

SOZOMEN'S Ecclesiastical History. A.D. 324-440. With Notes, Prefatory Remarks by Valesius, and Short Memoir. Together with the ECCLESIASTICAL HISTORY OF PHILOSTORGIUS, as epitomised by Photius. Trans. by Rev. E. Walford, M.A. With Notes and brief Life.

THEODORET and EVAGRIUS. Histories of the Church from A.D. 332 to the Death of Theodore of Mopsuestia, A.D. 427; and from A.D. 431 to A.D. 544. With Memoirs.

WIESELER'S (Karl) Chronological Synopsis of the Four Gospels. Trans. by Rev. Canon Venables. N. S.

ANTIQUARIAN LIBRARY.

35 Vols. at 5s. each. (8l. 15s. per set.)

ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE. — See *Bede*.

ASSER'S Life of Alfred.—See *Six O. E. Chronicles*.

BEDE'S (Venerable) Ecclesiastical History of England. Together with the ANGLO-SAXON CHRONICLE. With Notes, Short Life, Analysis, and Map. Edit. by J. A. Giles, D.C.L.

BOETHIUS'S Consolation of Philosophy. King Alfred's Anglo-Saxon Version of. With an English Translation on opposite pages, Notes, Introduction, and Glossary, by Rev. S. Fox, M.A. To which is added the Anglo-Saxon Version of the METRES OF BOETHIUS, with a free Translation by Martin F. Tupper, D.C.L.

BRAND'S Popular Antiquities of England, Scotland, and Ireland. Illustrating the Origin of our Vulgar and Provincial Customs, Ceremonies, and Superstitions. By Sir Henry Ellis, K.H., F.R.S. Frontispiece. 3 vols.

CHRONICLES of the CRUSADES. Contemporary Narratives of Richard Cœur de Lion, by Richard of Devizes and Geoffrey de Vinsauf; and of the Crusade at Saint Louis, by Lord John de Joinville. With Short Notes. Illuminated Frontispiece from an old MS.

DYER'S (T. F. T.) British Popular Customs, Present and Past. An Account of the various Games and Customs associated with different Days of the Year in the British Isles, arranged according to the Calendar. By the Rev. T. F. Thiselton Dyer, M.A.

EARLY TRAVELS IN PALESTINE. Comprising the Narratives of Arculf, Willibald, Bernard, Sæwulf, Sigurd, Benjamin of Tudela, Sir John Maundeville, De la Brocquière, and Maundrell; all unabridged. With Introduction and Notes by Thomas Wright. Map of Jerusalem.

ELLIS (G.) Specimens of Early English Metrical Romances, relating to Arthur, Merlin, Guy of Warwick, Richard Cœur de Lion, Charlemagne, Roland, &c. &c. With Historical Introduction by J. O. Halliwell, F.R.S. Illuminated Frontispiece from an old MS.

ETHELWERD. Chronicle of.—*See Six O. E. Chronicles.*

FLORENCE OF WORCESTER'S Chronicle, with the Two Continuations: comprising Annals of English History from the Departure of the Romans to the Reign of Edward I. Trans., with Notes, by Thomas Forester, M.A.

GESTA ROMANORUM, or Entertaining Moral Stories invented by the Monks. Trans. with Notes by the Rev. Charles Swan. Edit. by W. Hooper, M.A.

GIRALDUS CAMBRENSIS' Historical Works. Containing Topography of Ireland, and History of the Conquest of Ireland, by Th. Forester, M.A. Itinerary through Wales, and Description of Wales, by Sir R. Colt Hoare.

GEOFFREY OF MONMOUTH. Chronicle of.—*See Six O. E. Chronicles.*

GILDAS. Chronicle of.—*See Six O. E. Chronicles.*

HENRY OF HUNTINGDON'S History of the English, from the Roman Invasion to the Accession of Henry II.; with the Acts of King Stephen, and the Letter to Walter. By T. Forester, M.A. Frontispiece from an old MS.

INGULPH'S Chronicles of the Abbey of Croyland, with the CONTINUATION by Peter of Blois and others. Trans. with Notes by H. T. Riley, B.A.

KEIGHTLEY'S (Thomas) Fairy Mythology, illustrative of the Romance and Superstition of Various Countries. Frontispiece by Cruikshank. N. S.

LEPSIUS'S Letters from Egypt, Ethiopia, and the Peninsula of Sinai; to which are added, Extracts from his Chronology of the Egyptians, with reference to the Exodus of the Israelites. By L. and J. B. Horner. Maps and Coloured View of Mount Barkal.

MALLET'S Northern Antiquities, or an Historical Account of the Manners, Customs, Religions, and Literature of the Ancient Scandinavians. Trans. by Bishop Percy. With Translation of the PROSE EDDA, and Notes by J. A. Blackwell. Also an Abstract of the 'Eyrbyggja Saga' by Sir Walter Scott. With Glossary and Coloured Frontispiece.

MARCO POLO'S Travels; with Notes and Introduction. Edit. by T. Wright.

MATTHEW PARIS'S English History, from 1235 to 1273. By Rev. J. A. Giles, D.C.L. With Frontispiece. 3 vols.—*See also Roger of Wendover.*

MATTHEW OF WESTMINSTER'S Flowers of History, especially such as relate to the affairs of Britain, from the beginning of the World to A.D. 1307. By C. D. Yonge. 2 vols.

NENNIUS. Chronicle of.—*See Six O. E. Chronicles.*

ORDERICUS VITALIS' Ecclesiastical History of England and Normandy. With Notes, Introduction of Guizot, and the Critical Notice of M. Delille, by T. Forester, M.A. To which is added the CHRONICLE OF St. EVROULT. With General and Chronological Indexes. 4 vols.

PAUL'S (Dr. R.) Life of Alfred the Great. To which is appended Alfred's ANGLO-SAXON VERSION OF OROSIUS. With literal Translation interpaged, Notes, and an ANGLO-SAXON GRAMMAR and Glossary, by B. Thorpe, Esq. Frontispiece.

RICHARD OF CIRENCESTER. Chronicle of.—*See Six O. E. Chronicles.*

ROGER DE HOVEDEN'S Annals of English History, comprising the History of England and of other Countries of Europe from A.D. 732 to A.D. 1201. With Notes by H. T. Riley, B.A. 2 vols.

ROGER OF WENDOVER'S Flowers of History, comprising the History of England from the Descent of the Saxons to A.D. 1235, formerly ascribed to Matthew Paris. With Notes and Index by J. A. Giles, D.C.L. 2 vols.

SIX OLD ENGLISH CHRONICLES: viz., Asser's Life of Alfred and the Chronicles of Ethelwerd, Gildas, Nennius, Geoffrey of Monmouth, and Richard of Cirencester. Edit., with Notes, by J. A. Giles, D.C.L. Portrait of Alfred.

WILLIAM OF MALMESBURY'S Chronicle of the Kings of England, from the Earliest Period to King Stephen. By Rev. J. Sharpe. With Notes by J. A. Giles, D.C.L. Frontispiece.

YULE-TIDE STORIES. A Collection of Scandinavian and North-German Popular Tales and Traditions, from the Swedish, Danish, and German. Edit. by B. Thorpe.

ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY.

85 Vols. at 5s. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (23l. 2s. 6d. per set.)

ALLEN'S (Joseph, R.N.) Battles of the British Navy. Revised edition, with Indexes of Names and Events, and 57 Portraits and Plans. 2 vols.

ANDERSEN'S Danish Fairy Tales. By Caroline Peachey. With Short Life and 120 Wood Engravings.

ARIOSTO'S Orlando Furioso. In English Verse by W. S. Rose. With Notes and Short Memoir. Portrait after Titian, and 24 Steel Engravings. 2 vols.

BECHSTEIN'S Cage and Chamber Birds: their Natural History, Habits, &c. Together with SWEET'S BRITISH WARBLERS. 43 Plates and Woodcuts. N. S.

— or with the Plates Coloured, 7s. 6d.

BONOMI'S Nineveh and its Palaces. The Discoveries of Botta and Layard applied to the Elucidation of Holy Writ. 7 Plates and 294 Woodcuts. N. S.

BUTLER'S Hudibras, with Variorum Notes and Biography. Portrait and 28 Illustrations.

CATTERMOLE'S Evenings at Had-don Hall. Romantic Tales of the Olden Times. With 24 Steel Engravings after Cattermole.

CHINA, Pictorial, Descriptive, and Historical, with some account of Ava and the Burmese, Siam, and Anam. Map, and nearly 100 Illustrations.

CRAIK'S (G. L.) Pursuit of Knowledge under Difficulties. Illustrated by Anecdotes and Memoirs. Numerous Woodcut Portraits. N. S.

CRUIKSHANK'S Three Courses and a Dessert; comprising three Sets of Tales, West Country, Irish, and Legal; and a Mélange. With 50 Illustrations by Cruikshank. N. S.

— **Punch and Judy.** The Dialogue of the Puppet Show; an Account of its Origin, &c. 24 Illustrations by Cruikshank. N. S.

— With Coloured Plates. 7s. 6d.

DANTE, in English Verse, by I. C. Wright, M.A. With Introduction and Memoir. Portrait and 34 Steel Engravings after Flaxman. N. S.

DIDRON'S Christian Iconography; a History of Christian Art in the Middle Ages. Trans. by E. J. Millington. 150 Outline Engravings.

DYER (Dr. T. H.) Pompeii: its Buildings and Antiquities. An Account of the City, with full Description of the Remains and Recent Excavations, and an Itinerary for Visitors. By T. H. Dyer, LL.D. Nearly 300 Wood Engravings, Map, and Plan. 7s. 6d. N. S.

— **Rome:** History of the City, with Introduction on recent Excavations. 8 Engravings, Frontispiece, and 2 Maps.

GIL BLAS. The Adventures of. From the French of Lesage by Smollett. 24 Engravings after Smirke, and 10 Etchings by Cruikshank. 612 pages. 6s.

GRIMM'S Gammer Grethel; or, German Fairy Tales and Popular Stories, containing 42 Fairy Tales. By Edgar Taylor. Numerous Woodcuts after Cruikshank and Ludwig Grimm. 3s. 6d.

HOLBEIN'S Dance of Death and Bible Cuts. Upwards of 150 Subjects, engraved in facsimile, with Introduction and Descriptions by the late Francis Douce and Dr. Dibdin. 7s. 6d.

HOWITT'S (Mary) Pictorial Calendar of the Seasons; embodying AIKIN'S CALENDAR OF NATURE. Upwards of 100 Woodcuts.

INDIA, Pictorial, Descriptive, and Historical, from the Earliest Times. 100 Engravings on Wood and Map.

JESSE'S Anecdotes of Dogs. With 40 Woodcuts after Harvey, Bewick, and others. N. S.

— With 34 additional Steel Engravings after Cooper, Landseer, &c. 7s. 6d. N. S.

KING'S (C. W.) Natural History of Gems or Decorative Stones. Illustrations. 6s.

— **Natural History of Precious Stones and Metals.** Illustrations. 6s.

— **Handbook of Engraved Gems.** Numerous Illustrations. 6s.

KITTO'S Scripture Lands. Described in a series of Historical, Geographical, and Topographical Sketches. 42 Maps.

— With the Maps coloured, 7s. 6d.

KRUMMACHER'S Parables. 40 Illustrations.

LINDSAY'S (Lord) Letters on Egypt, Edom, and the Holy Land. 36 Wood Engravings and 2 Maps.

LODGE'S Portraits of Illustrious Personages of Great Britain, with Biographical and Historical Memoirs. 240 Portraits engraved on Steel, with the respective Biographies unabridged. Complete in 8 vols.

LONGFELLOW'S Poetical Works, including his Translations and Notes. 24 full-page Woodcuts by Birket Foster and others, and a Portrait. *N. S.*

— Without the Illustrations, 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

— **Prose Works.** With 16 full-page Woodcuts by Birket Foster and others.

LOUDON'S (Mrs.) Entertaining Naturalist. Popular Descriptions, Tales, and Anecdotes, of more than 500 Animals. Numerous Woodcuts. *N. S.*

MARRYAT'S (Capt., R.N.) Masterman Ready; or, the Wreck of the *Pacific*. (Written for Young People.) With 93 Woodcuts. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

— **Mission; or, Soenes in Africa.** (Written for Young People.) Illustrated by Gilbert and Dalziel. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

— **Pirate and Three Cutters.** (Written for Young People.) With a Memoir. 8 Steel Engravings after Clarkson Stanfield, R.A. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

— **Privateersman.** Adventures by Sea and Land One Hundred Years Ago. (Written for Young People.) 8 Steel Engravings. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

— **Settlers in Canada.** (Written for Young People.) 10 Engravings by Gilbert and Dalziel. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

— **Poor Jack.** (Written for Young People.) With 16 Illustrations after Clarkson Stanfield, R.A. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

MAXWELL'S Victories of Wellington and the British Armies. Frontispiece and 4 Portraits.

MICHAEL ANGELO and RAPHAEL, Their Lives and Works. By Duppa and Quatremère de Quincy. Portraits and Engravings, including the Last Judgment, and Cartoons. *N. S.*

MILLER'S History of the Anglo-Saxons, from the Earliest Period to the Norman Conquest. Portrait of Alfred, Map of Saxon Britain, and 12 Steel Engravings.

MILTON'S Poetical Works, with a Memoir and Notes by J. Montgomery, an Index to *Paradise Lost*, Todd's Verbal Index to all the Poems, and Notes. 120 Wood Engravings. 2 vols. *N. S.*

MUDIE'S History of British Birds. Revised by W. C. L. Martin. 52 Figures of Birds and 7 Plates of Eggs. 2 vols. *N. S.*

— With the Plates coloured, 7s. 6d. per vol.

NAVAL and MILITARY HEROES of Great Britain; a Record of British Valour on every Day in the year, from William the Conqueror to the Battle of Inkermann. By Major Johns, R.M., and Lieut. P. H. Nicolas, R.M. Indexes. 24 Portraits after Holbein, Reynolds, &c. 6s.

NICOLINI'S History of the Jesuits: their Origin, Progress, Doctrines, and Designs. 8 Portraits.

PETRARCH'S Sonnets, Triumphs, and other Poems, in English Verse. With Life by Thomas Campbell. Portrait and 15 Steel Engravings.

PICKERING'S History of the Races of Man, and their Geographical Distribution; with AN ANALYTICAL SYNOPSIS OF THE NATURAL HISTORY OF MAN. By Dr. Hall. Map of the World and 12 Plates.

— With the Plates coloured, 7s. 6d.

PICTORIAL HANDBOOK OF Modern Geography on a Popular Plan. Compiled from the best Authorities, English and Foreign, by H. G. Bohn. 150 Woodcuts and 51 Maps. 6s.

— With the Maps coloured, 7s. 6d.

— Without the Maps, 3s. 6d.

POPE'S Poetical Works, including Translations. Edit., with Notes, by R. Carruthers. 2 vols.

— **Homer's Iliad**, with Introduction and Notes by Rev. J. S. Watson, M.A. With Flaxman's Designs. *N. S.*

— **Homer's Odyssey**, with the BATTLE OF FROGS AND MICE, Hymns, &c., by other translators, including Chapman. Introduction and Notes by J. S. Watson, M.A. With Flaxman's Designs. *N. S.*

— **Life**, including many of his Letters. By R. Carruthers. Numerous Illustrations.

POTTERY AND PORCELAIN, and other objects of Vertu. Comprising an Illustrated Catalogue of the Bernal Collection, with the prices and names of the Possessors. Also an Introductory Lecture on Pottery and Porcelain, and an Engraved List of all Marks and Monograms. By H. G. Bohn. Numerous Woodcuts.

— With coloured Illustrations, 10s. 6d.

PROUT'S (Father) Reliques. Edited by Rev. F. Mahony. Copyright edition, with the Author's last corrections and additions. 21 Etchings by D. Maclise, R.A. Nearly 600 pages. 5s. *N. S.*

RECREATIONS IN SHOOTING. With some Account of the Game found in the British Isles, and Directions for the Management of Dog and Gun. By 'Craven.' 62 Woodcuts and 9 Steel Engravings after A. Cooper, R.A.

- REDDING'S History and Descriptions of Wines, Ancient and Modern.** 20 Woodcuts.
- RENNIE. Insect Architecture.** Revised by Rev. J. G. Wood, M.A. 186 Woodcuts. *N. S.*
- ROBINSON CRUSOE.** With Memoir of Defoe, 12 Steel Engravings and 74 Woodcuts after Stothard and Harvey.
— Without the Engravings, 3s. 6d.
- ROME IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.** An Account in 1817 of the Ruins of the Ancient City, and Monuments of Modern Times. By C. A. Eaton. 34 Steel Engravings. 2 vols.
- SHARPE (S.) The History of Egypt,** from the Earliest Times till the Conquest by the Arabs, A.D. 640. 2 Maps and upwards of 400 Woodcuts. 2 vols. *N. S.*
- SOUTHEY'S Life of Nelson.** With Additional Notes, Facsimiles of Nelson's Writing, Portraits, Plans, and 50 Engravings, after Birket Foster, &c. *N. S.*
- STARLING'S (Miss) Noble Deeds of Women ; or, Examples of Female Courage, Fortitude, and Virtue.** With 14 Steel Portraits. *N. S.*
- STUART and REVETT'S Antiquities** of Athens, and other Monuments of Greece ; with Glossary of Terms used in Grecian Architecture. 71 Steel Plates and numerous Woodcuts.
- SWEET'S British Warblers.** 5s.—See *Bechstein.*
- TALES OF THE GENII ; or, the** Delightful Lessons of Horam, the Son of Asmar. Trans. by Sir C. Morrell. Numerous Woodcuts.
- TASSO'S Jerusalem Delivered.** In English Spenserian Verse, with Life, by J. H. Wiffen. With 8 Engravings and 24 Woodcuts. *N. S.*

WALKER'S Manly Exercises ; containing Skating, Riding, Driving, Hunting, Shooting, Sailing, Rowing, Swimming, &c. 44 Engravings and numerous Woodcuts.

WALTON'S Complete Angler, or the Contemplative Man's Recreation, by Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton. With Memoirs and Notes by E. Jesse. Also an Account of Fishing Stations, Tackle, &c., by H. G. Bohn. Portrait and 203 Woodcuts. *N. S.*

— With 26 additional Engravings on Steel, 7s. 6d.

— **Lives of Donne, Wotton, Hooker, &c.,** with Notes. A New Edition, revised by A. H. Bullen, with a Memoir of Izaak Walton by William Dowling. 6 Portraits, 6 Autograph Signatures, &c. *N. S.*

WELLINGTON, Life of. From the Materials of Maxwell. 18 Steel Engravings.

— **Victories of.**—See *Maxwell.*

WESTROPP (H. M.) A Handbook of Archæology, Egyptian, Greek, Etruscan, Roman. By H. M. Westropp. Numerous Illustrations. 7s. 6d. *N. S.*

WHITE'S Natural History of Selborne, with Observations on various Parts of Nature, and the Naturalists' Calendar. Sir W. Jardine. Edit., with Notes and Memoir, by E. Jesse. 40 Portraits. *N. S.*

— With the Plates coloured, 7s. 6d. *N. S.*

YOUNG LADY'S BOOK, The. A Manual of Recreations, Arts, Sciences, and Accomplishments. 1200 Woodcut Illustrations. 7s. 6d.

— cloth gilt, gilt edges, 9s.

CLASSICAL LIBRARY.

TRANSLATIONS FROM THE GREEK AND LATIN.

95 Vols. at 5s. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (23l. 7s. per set.)

ÆSCHYLUS, The Dramas of. In English Verse by Anna Swanwick. 3rd edition. *N. S.*

— **The Tragedies of.** In Prose, with Notes and Introduction, by T. A. Buckley, B.A. Portrait. 3s. 6d.

AMMIANUS MARCELLINUS. His- tory of Rome during the Reigns of Constantius, Julian, Jovianus, Valentinian, and Valens, by C. D. Yonge, B.A. Double volume. 7s. 6d.

ANTONINUS (M. Aurelius), The Thoughts of. Translated literally, with Notes, Biographical Sketch, and Essay on the Philosophy, by George Long, M.A. 3s. 6d. *N. S.*

APULEIUS, The Works of. Comprising the Golden Ass, God of Socrates, Florida, and Discourse of Magic. With a Metrical Version of Cupid and Psyche, and Mrs. Tighe's Psyche. Frontispiece.

ARISTOPHANES' Comedies. Trans., with Notes and Extracts from Frere's and other Metrical Versions, by W. J. Hickie. Portrait. 2 vols.

ARISTOTLE'S Nicomachean Ethics. Trans., with Notes, Analytical Introduction, and Questions for Students, by Ven. Archdn. Browne.

— **Politics and Economics.** Trans., with Notes, Analyses, and Index, by E. Walford, M.A., and an Essay and Life by Dr. Gillies.

— **Metaphysics.** Trans., with Notes, Analysis, and Examination Questions, by Rev. John H. M'Mahon, M.A.

— **History of Animals.** In Ten Books. Trans., with Notes and Index, by R. Cresswell, M.A.

— **Organon; or, Logical Treatises, and the Introduction of Porphyry.** With Notes, Analysis, and Introduction, by Rev. O. F. Owen, M.A. 2 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

— **Rhetoric and Poetics.** Trans., with Hobbes' Analysis, Exam. Questions, and Notes, by T. Buckley, B.A. Portrait.

ATHENÆUS. The Deipnosophists; or, the Banquet of the Learned. By C. D. Yonge, B.A. With an Appendix of Poetical Fragments. 3 vols.

ATLAS of Classical Geography. 22 large Coloured Maps. With a complete Index. Imp. 8vo. 7s. 6d.

BION.—See *Theocritus*.

CÆSAR. Commentaries on the Gallic and Civil Wars, with the Supplementary Books attributed to Hirtius, including the complete Alexandrian, African, and Spanish Wars. Trans. with Notes. Portrait.

CATULLUS, Tibullus, and the Vigil of Venus. Trans. with Notes and Biographical Introduction. To which are added, Metrical Versions by Lamb, Grainger, and others. Frontispiece.

CICERO'S Orations. Trans. by C. D. Yonge, B.A. 4 vols.

— **On Oratory and Orators.** With Letters to Quintus and Brutus. Trans., with Notes, by Rev. J. S. Watson, M.A.

— **On the Nature of the Gods, Divination, Fate, Laws, a Republic, Consulship.** Trans., with Notes, by C. D. Yonge, B.A.

— **Academics, De Finibus, and Tusculan Questions.** By C. D. Yonge, B.A. With Sketch of the Greek Philosophers mentioned by Cicero.

CICERO'S Orations.—Continued.

— **Offices; or, Moral Duties.** Cato Major, an Essay on Old Age; Lælius, an Essay on Friendship; Scipio's Dream; Paradoxes; Letter to Quintus on Magistrates. Trans., with Notes, by C. R. Edmonds. Portrait. 3s. 6d.

DEMOSTHENES' Orations. Trans., with Notes, Arguments, a Chronological Abstract, and Appendices, by C. Rann Kennedy. 5 vols.

DICTIONARY of LATIN and GREEK Quotations; including Proverbs, Maxims, Mottoes, Law Terms and Phrases. With the Quantities marked, and English Translations.

— With Index Verborum (622 pages). 6s.

— Index Verborum to the above, with the *Quantities* and Accents marked (56 pages), limp cloth. 1s.

DIOGENES LAERTIUS. Lives and Opinions of the Ancient Philosophers. Trans., with Notes, by C. D. Yonge, B.A.

EPICTETUS. The Discourses of. With the Encheiridion and Fragments. With Notes, Life, and View of his Philosophy, by George Long, M.A. N. S.

EURIPIDES. Trans., with Notes and Introduction, by T. A. Buckley, B.A. Portrait. 2 vols.

GREEK ANTHOLOGY. In English Prose by G. Burges, M.A. With Metrical Versions by Bland, Merivale, Lord Denman, &c.

GREEK ROMANCES of Heliodorus, Longus, and Achilles Tatius; viz., The Adventures of Theagenes and Chariclea; Amours of Daphnis and Chloe; and Loves of Clitopho and Leucippe. Trans., with Notes, by Rev. R. Smith, M.A.

HERODOTUS. Literally trans. by Rev. Henry Cary, M.A. Portrait.

HESIOD, CALLIMACHUS, and Theognis. In Prose, with Notes and Biographical Notices by Rev. J. Banks, M.A. Together with the Metrical Versions of Hesiod, by Elton; Callimachus, by Tytler; and Theognis, by Frere.

HOMER'S Iliad. In English Prose, with Notes by T. A. Buckley, B.A. Portrait.

— **Odyssey, Hymns, Epigrams, and Battle of the Frogs and Mice.** In English Prose, with Notes and Memoir by T. A. Buckley, B.A.

HORACE. In Prose by Smart, with Notes selected by T. A. Buckley, B.A. Portrait. 3s. 6d.

JUSTIN, CORNELIUS NEPOS, and Eutropius. Trans., with Notes, by Rev. J. S. Watson, M.A.

JUVENAL, PERSIUS, SULPICIA, and Lucilius. In Prose, with Notes, Chronological Tables, Arguments, by L. Evans, M.A. To which is added the Metrical Version of Juvenal and Persius by Gifford. Frontispiece.

LIVY. The History of Rome. Trans. by Dr. Spillan and others. 4 vols. Portrait.

LUCAN'S Pharsalia. In Prose, with Notes by H. T. Riley.

LUCRETIUS. In Prose, with Notes and Biographical Introduction by Rev. J. S. Watson, M.A. To which is added the Metrical Version by J. M. Good.

MARTIAL'S Epigrams, complete. In Prose, with Verse Translations selected from English Poets, and other sources. Dble. vol. (670 pages). 7s. 6d.

MOSCHUS.—*See Theocritus.*

OVID'S Works, complete. In Prose, with Notes and Introduction. 3 vols.

PHALARIS. Bentley's Dissertations upon the Epistles of Phalaris, Themistocles, Socrates, Euripides, and the Fables of Æsop. With Introduction and Notes by Prof. W. Wagner, Ph.D.

PINDAR. In Prose, with Introduction and Notes by Dawson W. Turner. Together with the Metrical Version by Abraham Moore. Portrait.

PLATO'S Works. Trans., with Introduction and Notes. 6 vols.

— **Dialogues.** A Summary and Analysis of. With Analytical Index to the Greek text of modern editions and to the above translations, by A. Day, LL.D.

PLAUTUS'S Comedies. In Prose, with Notes and Index by H. T. Riley, B.A. 2 vols.

PLINY'S Natural History. Trans., with Notes, by J. Bostock, M.D., F.R.S., and H. T. Riley, B.A. 6 vols.

PLINY. The Letters of Pliny the Younger. Melmoth's Translation, revised, with Notes and short Life, by Rev. F. C. T. Bosanquet, M.A.

PLUTARCH'S Morals. Theosophical Essays. Trans. by C. W. King, M.A. N. S.
— **Lives.** *See page 6.*

PROPERTIUS, The Elegies of. With Notes, Literally translated by the Rev. P. J. F. Gantillon, M.A., with metrical versions of Select Elegies by Nott and Elton. 3s. 6d.

QUINTILIAN'S Institutes of Oratory. Trans., with Notes and Biographical Notice, by Rev. J. S. Watson, M.A. 2 vols.

SALLUST, FLORUS, and VELLEIUS Paterculus. Trans., with Notes and Biographical Notices, by J. S. Watson, M.A.

SENECA. [*Preparing.*]

SOPHOCLES. The Tragedies of. In Prose, with Notes, Arguments, and Introduction. Portrait.

STRABO'S Geography. Trans., with Notes, by W. Falconer, M.A., and H. C. Hamilton. Copious Index, giving Ancient and Modern Names. 3 vols.

SUETONIUS' Lives of the Twelve Cæsars and Lives of the Grammarians. The Translation of Thomson, revised, with Notes, by T. Forester.

TACITUS. The Works of. Trans., with Notes. 2 vols.

TERENCE and PHÆDRUS. In English Prose, with Notes and Arguments, by H. T. Riley, B.A. To which is added Smart's Metrical Version of Phædrus. With Frontispiece.

THEOCRITUS, BION, MOSCHUS, and Tyrtæus. In Prose, with Notes and Arguments, by Rev. J. Banks, M.A. To which are appended the METRICAL VERSIONS of Chapman. Portrait of Theocritus.

THUCYDIDES. The Peloponnesian War. Trans., with Notes, by Rev. H. Dale. Portrait. 2 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

TYRTÆUS.—*See Theocritus.*

VIRGIL. The Works of. In Prose, with Notes by Davidson. Revised, with additional Notes and Biographical Notice, by T. A. Buckley, B.A. Portrait. 3s. 6d.

XENOPHON'S Works. Trans., with Notes, by J. S. Watson, M.A., and others. Portrait. In 3 vols.

COLLEGIATE SERIES.

10 Vols. at 5s. each. (2l. 10s. per set.)

DANTE. The Inferno. Prose Trans., with the Text of the Original on the same page, and Explanatory Notes, by John A. Carlyle, M.D. Portrait. N. S.

— **The Purgatorio.** Prose Trans., with the Original on the same page, and Explanatory Notes, by W. S. Dugdale. N. S.

NEW TESTAMENT (The) in Greek. Griesbach's Text, with the Readings of Mill and Scholz at the foot of the page, and Parallel References in the margin. Also a Critical Introduction and Chronological Tables. Two Fac-similes of Greek Manuscripts. 650 pages. 3s. 6d.

— or bound up with a Greek and English Lexicon to the New Testament (250 pages additional, making in all 900). 5s.

The Lexicon may be had separately, price 2s.

DOBREE'S Adversaria. (Notes on the Greek and Latin Classics.) Edited by the late Prof. Wagner. 2 vols.

DONALDSON (Dr.) The Theatre of the Greeks. With Supplementary Treatise on the Language, Metres, and Prosody of the Greek Dramatists. Numerous Illustrations and 3 Plans. By J. W. Donaldson, D.D. N. S.

KEIGHTLEY'S (Thomas) Mythology of Ancient Greece and Italy. Revised by Leonhard Schmitz, Ph.D., LL.D. 12 Plates. N. S.

HERODOTUS, Notes on. Original and Selected from the best Commentators. By D. W. Turner, M.A. Coloured Map.

— **Analysis and Summary of,** with a Synchronistical Table of Events—Tables of Weights, Measures, Money, and Distances—an Outline of the History and Geography—and the Dates completed from Gaisford, Baehr, &c. By J. T. Wheeler.

THUCYDIDES. An Analysis and Summary of. With Chronological Table of Events, &c., by J. T. Wheeler.

SCIENTIFIC LIBRARY.

57 Vols. at 5s. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (15l. 2s. per set.)

AGASSIZ and GOULD. Outline of Comparative Physiology touching the Structure and Development of the Races of Animals living and extinct. For Schools and Colleges. Enlarged by Dr. Wright. With Index and 300 Illustrative Woodcuts.

BOLLEY'S Manual of Technical Analysis; a Guide for the Testing and Valuation of the various Natural and Artificial Substances employed in the Arts and Domestic Economy, founded on the work of Dr. Bolley. Edit. by Dr. Paul. 100 Woodcuts.

BRIDGEWATER TREATISES.

— **Bell (Sir Charles) on the Hand;** its Mechanism and Vital Endowments, as evincing Design. Preceded by an Account of the Author's Discoveries in the Nervous System by A. Shaw. Numerous Woodcuts.

— **Kirby on the History, Habits, and Instincts of Animals.** With Notes by T. Rymer Jones. 100 Woodcuts. 2 vols.

— **Kidd on the Adaptation of External Nature to the Physical Condition of Man,** principally with reference to the Supply of his Wants and the Exercises of his Intellectual Faculties. 3s. 6d.

BRIDGEWATER TREATISES.—
Continued.

— **Whewell's Astronomy and General Physics,** considered with reference to Natural Theology. Portrait of the Earl of Bridgewater. 3s. 6d.

— **Chalmers on the Adaptation of External Nature to the Moral and Intellectual Constitution of Man.** With Memoir by Rev. Dr. Cumming. Portrait.

— **Prout's Treatise on Chemistry, Meteorology, and the Function of Digestion,** with reference to Natural Theology. Edit. by Dr. J. W. Griffith. 2 Maps.

— **Buckland's Geology and Mineralogy.** With Additions by Prof. Owen, Prof. Phillips, and R. Brown. Memoir of Buckland. Portrait. 2 vols. 15s. Vol. I. Text. Vol. II. 90 large plates with letterpress.

— **Roget's Animal and Vegetable Physiology.** 463 Woodcuts. 2 vols. 6s. each.

BROWNE. Manual of Geology. By A. J. Jukes Browne. With numerous Diagrams and Illustrations, 6s.

CARPENTER'S (Dr. W. B.) Zoology.

A Systematic View of the Structure, Habits, Instincts, and Uses of the principal Families of the Animal Kingdom, and of the chief Forms of Fossil Remains. Revised by W. S. Dallas, F.L.S. Numerous Woodcuts. 2 vols. 6s. each.

— **Mechanical Philosophy, Astronomy, and Horology.** A Popular Exposition. 181 Woodcuts.

— **Vegetable Physiology and Systematic Botany.** A complete Introduction to the Knowledge of Plants. Revised by E. Lankester, M.D., &c. Numerous Woodcuts. 6s.

— **Animal Physiology.** Revised Edition. 300 Woodcuts. 6s.

CHEVREUL on Colour. Containing the Principles of Harmony and Contrast of Colours, and their Application to the Arts; including Painting, Decoration, Tapestries, Carpets, Mosaics, Glazing, Staining, Calico Printing, Letterpress Printing, Map Colouring, Dress, Landscape and Flower Gardening, &c. Trans. by C. Martel. Several Plates.

— With an additional series of 16 Plates in Colours, 7s. 6d.

ENNEMOSER'S History of Magic.

Trans. by W. Howitt. With an Appendix of the most remarkable and best authenticated Stories of Apparitions, Dreams, Second Sight, Table-Turning, and Spirit-Rapping, &c. 2 vols.

HIND'S Introduction to Astronomy.

With Vocabulary of the Terms in present use. Numerous Woodcuts. 3s. 6d. N.S.

HOGG'S (Jabez) Elements of Experimental and Natural Philosophy.

Being an Easy Introduction to the Study of Mechanics, Pneumatics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Acoustics, Optics, Caloric, Electricity, Voltaism, and Magnetism. 400 Woodcuts.

HUMBOLDT'S Cosmos; or, Sketch

of a Physical Description of the Universe. Trans. by E. C. Otté, B. H. Paul, and W. S. Dallas, F.L.S. Portrait. 5 vols. 3s. 6d. each, excepting vol. v., 5s.

— **Personal Narrative of his Travels** in America during the years 1799-1804. Trans., with Notes, by T. Ross. 3 vols.

— **Views of Nature; or, Contemplations of the Sublime Phenomena of Creation,** with Scientific Illustrations. Trans. by E. C. Otté.

HUNT'S (Robert) Poetry of Science;

or, Studies of the Physical Phenomena of Nature. By Robert Hunt, Professor at the School of Mines.

JOYCE'S Scientific Dialogues. A Familiar Introduction to the Arts and Sciences. For Schools and Young People. Numerous Woodcuts.

— **Introduction to the Arts and Sciences,** for Schools and Young People. Divided into Lessons with Examination Questions. Woodcuts. 3s. 6d.

JUKES-BROWNE'S Student's Handbook of Physical Geology. By A. J. Jukes-Browne, of the Geological Survey of England. With numerous Diagrams and Illustrations, 6s. N.S.

KNIGHT'S (Charles) Knowledge is Power. A Popular Manual of Political Economy.

LECTURES ON PAINTING by the Royal Academicians, Barry, Opie, Fuseli. With Introductory Essay and Notes by R. Wornum. Portrait of Fuseli.

LILLY. Introduction to Astrology. With a Grammar of Astrology and Tables for calculating Nativities, by Zadkiel.

MANTELL'S (Dr.) Geological Excursions through the Isle of Wight and along the Dorset Coast. Numerous Woodcuts and Geological Map.

— **Medals of Creation; or, First Lessons in Geology:** including Geological Excursions. Coloured Plates and several hundred Woodcuts. 2 vols. 7s. 6d. each.

— **Petrifactions and their Teachings.** Handbook to the Organic Remains in the British Museum. Numerous Woodcuts. 6s.

— **Wonders of Geology; or, a Familiar Exposition of Geological Phenomena.** A coloured Geological Map of England, Plates, and 200 Woodcuts. 2 vols. 7s. 6d. each.

MORPHY'S Games of Chess, being the Matches and best Games played by the American Champion, with explanatory and analytical Notes by J. Löwenthal. With short Memoir and Portrait of Morphy.

SCHOUW'S Earth, Plants, and Man.

Popular Pictures of Nature. And Kobell's Sketches from the Mineral Kingdom. Trans. by A. Henfrey, F.R.S. Coloured Map of the Geography of Plants.

SMITH'S (Pye) Geology and Scripture; or, the Relation between the Scriptures and Geological Science. With Memoir.

STANLEY'S Classified Synopsis of the Principal Painters of the Dutch and Flemish Schools, including an Account of some of the early German Masters. By George Stanley.

STAUNTON'S Chess-Player's Handbook. A Popular and Scientific Introduction to the Game, with numerous Diagrams and Coloured Frontispiece. N.S.

STAUNTON.—*Continued.*

— **Chess Praxis.** A Supplement to the Chess-player's Handbook. Containing the most important modern Improvements in the Openings; Code of Chess Laws; and a Selection of Morphy's Games. Annotated. 636 pages. Diagrams. 6s.

— **Chess-Player's Companion.** Comprising a Treatise on Odds, Collection of Match Games, including the French Match with M. St. Amant, and a Selection of Original Problems. Diagrams and Coloured Frontispiece.

— **Chess Tournament of 1851.** A Collection of Games played at this celebrated assemblage. With Introduction and Notes. Numerous Diagrams.

STOCKHARDT'S Experimental Chemistry. A Handbook for the Study of the Science by simple Experiments. Edit. by C. W. Heaton, F.C.S. Numerous Woodcuts. N. S.

URE'S (Dr. A.) Cotton Manufacture of Great Britain, systematically investigated; with an Introductory View of its Comparative State in Foreign Countries. Revised by P. L. Simmonds. 150 Illustrations. 2 vols.

— **Philosophy of Manufactures,** or an Exposition of the Scientific, Moral, and Commercial Economy of the Factory System of Great Britain. Revised by P. L. Simmonds. Numerous Figures. 800 pages. 7s. 6d.

ECONOMICS AND FINANCE.

GILBART'S History, Principles, and Practice of Banking. Revised to 1881 by A. S. Michie, of the Royal Bank of Scotland. Portrait of Gilbert. 2 vols. 10s. N. S.

REFERENCE LIBRARY.

27 Volumes at Various Prices. (8l. 4s. per set.)

BOHN'S Dictionary of Poetical Quotations. Fourth Edition. 6s.

BUCHANAN'S Dictionary of Science and Technical Terms used in Philosophy, Literature, Professions, Commerce, Arts, and Trades. By W. H. Buchanan, with Supplement. Edited by Jas. A. Smith. 6s.

BLAIR'S Chronological Tables. Comprehending the Chronology and History of the World, from the Earliest Times to the Russian Treaty of Peace, April 1856. By J. W. Rosse. 800 pages. 10s.

— **Index of Dates.** Comprehending the principal Facts in the Chronology and History of the World, from the Earliest to the Present, alphabetically arranged; being a complete Index to the foregoing. By J. W. Rosse. 2 vols. 5s. each.

BOHN'S Dictionary of Quotations from the English Poets. 4th and cheaper Edition. 6s.

BUCHANAN'S Dictionary of Science and Technical Terms. With Supplement. 820 pp. 6s.

CLARK'S (Hugh) Introduction to Heraldry. Revised by J. R. Planché. 5s. 950 Illustrations.

— *With the Illustrations coloured,* 15s. N. S.

CHRONICLES OF THE TOMBS. A Select Collection of Epitaphs, with Essay on Epitaphs and Observations on Sepulchral Antiquities. By T. J. Pettigrew, F.R.S., F.S.A. 5s.

COINS, Manual of.—*See Humphreys.*

DATES, Index of.—*See Blair.*

DICTIONARY of Obsolete and Provincial English. Containing Words from English Writers previous to the 19th Century. By Thomas Wright, M.A., F.S.A., &c. 2 vols. 5s. each.

EPIGRAMMATISTS (The). A Selection from the Epigrammatic Literature of Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern Times. With Introduction, Notes, Observations, Illustrations, an Appendix on Works connected with Epigrammatic Literature, by Rev. H. Dodd, M.A. 6s. N. S.

GAMES, Handbook of. Comprising Treatises on above 40 Games of Chance, Skill, and Manual Dexterity, including Whist, Billiards, &c. Edit. by Henry G. Bohn. Numerous Diagrams. 5s. N. S.

HUMPHREYS' Coin Collectors' Manual. An Historical Account of the Progress of Coinage from the Earliest Time, by H. N. Humphreys. 140 Illustrations. 2 vols. 5s. each. N. S.

LOWNDES' Bibliographer's Manual of English Literature. Containing an Account of Rare and Curious Books published in or relating to Great Britain and Ireland, from the Invention of Printing, with Biographical Notices and Prices, by W. T. Lowndes. Parts I.-X. (A to Z), 3s. 6d. each. Part XI. (Appendix Vol.), 5s. Or the 11 parts in 4 vols., half morocco, 2l. 2s.

MEDICINE, Handbook of Domestic, Popularly Arranged. By Dr. H. Davies. 700 pages. 5s.

NOTED NAMES OF FICTION. Dictionary of. Including also Familiar Pseudonyms, Surnames bestowed on Eminent Men, &c. By W. A. Wheeler, M.A. 5s. N. S.

POLITICAL CYCLOPÆDIA. A Dictionary of Political, Constitutional, Statistical, and Forensic Knowledge; forming a Work of Reference on subjects of Civil Administration, Political Economy, Finance, Commerce, Laws, and Social Relations. 4 vols. 3s. 6d. each.

PROVERBS, Handbook of. Containing an entire Republication of Ray's Collection, with Additions from Foreign Languages and Sayings, Sentences, Maxims, and Phrases, collected by H. G. Bohn. 5s.

— **A Polyglot of Foreign.** Comprising French, Italian, German, Dutch, Spanish, Portuguese, and Danish. With English Translations. 5s.

SYNONYMS and ANTONYMS; or, Kindred Words and their Opposites, Collected and Contrasted by Ven. C. J. Smith, M.A. 5s. N. S.

WRIGHT (Th.)—See Dictionary.

NOVELISTS' LIBRARY.

10 Volumes at 3s. 6d. each, excepting those marked otherwise. (1l. 18s. per set.)

BURNEY'S Evelina; or, a Young Lady's Entrance into the World. By F. Burney (Mme. D'Arblay). With Introduction and Notes by A. R. Ellis, Author of 'Sylvestra,' &c. N. S.

— **Cecilia.** With Introduction and Notes by A. R. Ellis. 2 vols. N. S.

FIELDING'S Joseph Andrews and his Friend Mr. Abraham Adams. With Roscoe's Biography. Cruikshank's Illustrations. N. S.

— **History of Tom Jones, a Foundling.** Roscoe's Edition. Cruikshank's Illustrations. 2 vols. N. S.

FIELDING.—Continued.

— **Amelia.** Roscoe's Edition, revised. Cruikshank's Illustrations. 5s. N. S.

GROSSI'S Marco Visconti. Trans. by A. F. D. N. S.

MANZONI. The Betrothed: being a Translation of 'I Promessi Sposi.' Numerous Woodcuts. 1 vol. (732 pages), 5s. N. S.

STOWE (Mrs. H. B.) Uncle Tom's Cabin; or, Life among the Lowly. 8 full-page Illustrations. N. S.

ARTISTS' LIBRARY.

5 Volumes at Various Prices. (1l. 8s. 6d. per set.)

BELL (Sir Charles). The Anatomy and Philosophy of Expression, as Connected with the Fine Arts. 5s. N. S.

DEMMIN. History of Arms and Armour from the Earliest Period. By Auguste Demmin. Trans. by C. C. Black, M.A., Assistant Keeper, S. K. Museum. 1900 Illustrations. 7s. 6d. N. S.

FLAXMAN. Lectures on Sculpture. With Three Addresses to the R.A. by Sir

R. Westmacott, R.A., and Memoir of Flaxman. Portrait and 53 Plates. 6s. N. S.

LEONARDO DA VINCI'S Treatise on Painting. Trans. by J. F. Rigaud, R.A. With a Life and an Account of his Works by J. W. Brown. Numerous Plates. 5s. N. S.

PLANCHÉ'S History of British Costume, from the Earliest Time to the 19th Century. By J. R. Planché. 400 Illustrations. s. N. S.

BOHN'S CHEAP SERIES.

PRICE ONE SHILLING EACH.

A Series of Complete Stories or Essays, mostly reprinted from Vols. in Bohn's Libraries, and neatly bound in stiff paper cover, with cut edges, suitable for Railway Reading.

ASCHAM (ROGER).—

SCHOLEMASTER. By PROFESSOR MAYOR.

CARPENTER (DR. W. B.).—

PHYSIOLOGY OF TEMPERANCE AND TOTAL ABSTINENCE.

EMERSON.—

ENGLAND AND ENGLISH CHARACTERISTICS. Lectures on the Race, Ability, Manners, Truth, Character, Wealth, Religion, &c. &c.

NATURE : An Essay. To which are added Orations, Lectures, and Addresses.

REPRESENTATIVE MEN : Seven Lectures on PLATO, SWEDENBORG, MONTAIGNE, SHAKESPEARE, NAPOLEON, and GOETHE.

TWENTY ESSAYS on Various Subjects.

THE CONDUCT OF LIFE.

FRANKLIN (BENJAMIN).—

AUTOBIOGRAPHY. Edited by J. SPARKS.

HAWTHORNE (NATHANIEL).—

TWICE-TOLD TALES. Two Vols. in One.

SNOW IMAGE, and other Tales.

SCARLET LETTER.

HOUSE WITH THE SEVEN GABLES.

TRANSFORMATION ; or the Marble Fawn. Two Parts.

HAZLITT (W.).—

TABLE-TALK : Essays on Men and Manners. Three Parts.

PLAIN SPEAKER : Opinions on Books, Men, and Things.
Three Parts.

LECTURES ON THE ENGLISH COMIC WRITERS.

LECTURES ON THE ENGLISH POETS.

HAZLITT (W.).—Continued.

LECTURES ON THE CHARACTERS OF SHAKE-
SPEARE'S PLAYS.

LECTURES ON THE LITERATURE OF THE AGE OF
ELIZABETH, chiefly Dramatic.

IRVING (WASHINGTON).—

LIFE OF MOHAMMED. With Portrait.

LIVES OF SUCCESSORS OF MOHAMMED.

LIFE OF GOLDSMITH.

SKETCH-BOOK.

TALES OF A TRAVELLER.

TOUR ON THE PRAIRIES.

CONQUESTS OF GRANADA AND SPAIN. Two Parts.

LIFE AND VOYAGES OF COLUMBUS. Two Parts.

COMPANIONS OF COLUMBUS: Their Voyages and Dis-
coveries.

ADVENTURES OF CAPTAIN BONNEVILLE in the Rocky
Mountains and the Far West.

KNICKERBOCKER'S HISTORY OF NEW YORK, from the
Beginning of the World to the End of the Dutch Dynasty.

TALES OF THE ALHAMBRA.

CONQUEST OF FLORIDA UNDER HERNANDO DE
SOTO.

ABBOTSFORD AND NEWSTEAD ABBEY.

SALMAGUNDI ; or, The Whim-Whams and Opinions of
LAUNCELOT LANGSTAFF, Esq.

BRACEBRIDGE HALL ; or, The Humourists.

ASTORIA ; or, Anecdotes of an Enterprise beyond the Rocky
Mountains.

WOLFERT'S ROOST, and Other Tsles.

LAMB (CHARLES).—

ESSAYS OF ELIA. With a Portrait.

LAST ESSAYS OF ELIA.

ELIANA. With Biographical Sketch.

MARRYAT (CAPTAIN).

PIRATE AND THE THREE CUTTERS. With a Memoir of
the Author.

The only authorised Edition ; no others published in England contain the Derivations and Etymological Notes of Dr. Mahn, who devoted several years to this portion of the Work.

WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

Thoroughly revised and improved by CHAUNCEY A. GOODRICH, D.D., LL.D.,
and NOAH PORTER, D.D., of Yale College.

THE GUINEA DICTIONARY.

New Edition [1880], with a Supplement of upwards of 4600 New Words and Meanings.

1628 Pages. 3000 Illustrations.

The features of this volume, which render it perhaps the most useful Dictionary for general reference extant, as it is undoubtedly one of the cheapest books ever published, are as follows :—

1. COMPLETENESS.—It contains 114,000 words—more by 10,000 than any other Dictionary ; and these are, for the most part, unusual or technical terms, for the explanation of which a Dictionary is most wanted.
2. ACCURACY OF DEFINITION.—In the present edition all the definitions have been carefully and methodically analysed by W. G. Webster, the Rev. C. Goodrich. Prof. Lyman, Prof. Whitney, and Prof. Gilman, under the superintendence of Prof. Goodrich.
3. SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL TERMS.—In order to secure the utmost completeness and accuracy of definition, this department has been subdivided among eminent scholars and experts, including Prof. Dana, Prof. Lyman, &c.
4. ETYMOLOGY.—The eminent philologist, Dr. C. F. Mahn, has devoted five years to completing this department.
5. THE ORTHOGRAPHY is based, as far as possible, on Fixed Principles. *In all cases of doubt an alternative spelling is given.*
6. PRONUNCIATION.—This has been entrusted to Mr. W. G. Webster and Mr. Wheeler, assisted by other scholars. The pronunciation of each word is indicated by typographical signs *printed at the bottom of each page.*
7. THE ILLUSTRATIVE CITATIONS.—No labour has been spared to embody such quotations from standard authors as may throw light on the definitions, or possess any special interest of thought or language.
8. THE SYNONYMS.—These are subjoined to the words to which they belong, and are very complete.
9. THE ILLUSTRATIONS, which exceed 3000, are inserted, not for the sake of ornament, but to elucidate the meaning of words.

Cloth, 21s. ; half-bound in calf, 30s. ; calf or half russia, 31s. 6d. ; russia, 2l.

To be obtained through all Booksellers.

WEBSTER'S DICTIONARY.

‘SEVENTY years passed before Johnson was followed by Webster, an American writer, who faced the task of the English Dictionary with a full appreciation of its requirements, leading to better practical results.’ . . .

‘His laborious comparison of twenty languages, though never published, bore fruit in his own mind, and his training placed him both in knowledge and judgment far in advance of Johnson as a philologist. Webster’s *American Dictionary of the English Language* was published in 1828, and of course appeared at once in England, where successive re-editing *has yet kept it in the highest place as a practical Dictionary.*’

‘The acceptance of an American Dictionary in England has itself had immense effect in keeping up the community of speech, to break which would be a grievous harm, not to English-speaking nations alone, but to mankind. The result of this has been that the common Dictionary must suit both sides of the Atlantic.’ . . .

‘The good average business-like character of Webster’s Dictionary, both in style and matter, made it as distinctly suited as Johnson’s was distinctly unsuited to be expanded and re-edited by other hands. Professor Goodrich’s edition of 1847 is not much more than enlarged and amended ; but other revisions since have so much novelty of plan as to be described as distinct works.’ . . .

‘The American revised Webster’s Dictionary of 1864, published in America and England, is of an altogether higher order than these last [The London Imperial and Student’s]. It bears on its title-page the names of Drs. Goodrich and Porter, but inasmuch as its especial improvement is in the etymological department, the care of which was committed to Dr. Mahn of Berlin, we prefer to describe it in short as the Webster-Mahn Dictionary. Many other literary men, among them Professors Whitney and Dana, aided in the task of compilation and revision. On consideration it seems that the editors and contributors have gone far toward improving Webster to the utmost that he will bear improvement. *The vocabulary has become almost complete as regards usual words, while the definitions keep throughout to Webster’s simple careful style, and the derivations are assigned with the aid of good modern authorities.*’

‘On the whole, the Webster-Mahn Dictionary as it stands is most respectable, and **certainly the best Practical English Dictionary extant.**’—From the *Quarterly Review*, Oct. 1873.

LONDON : G. BELL & SONS, YORK STREET, COVENT GARDEN.

New Edition, with a New Biographical Supplement of upwards of 900 Names.

WEBSTER'S COMPLETE DICTIONARY AND BOOK OF LITERARY REFERENCE.

1919 Pages. 3000 Illustrations.

Besides the matter comprised in the WEBSTER'S GUINEA DICTIONARY, this volume contains the following Appendices, which will show that no pains have been spared to make it a complete Literary Reference-book :—

- A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE. By Prof. James Hadley.
- PRINCIPLES OF PRONUNCIATION. By Prof. Goodrich and W. A. Wheeler, M.A.,
Including a Synopsis of Words differently pronounced by different authorities.
- A SHORT TREATISE ON ORTHOGRAPHY. By A. W. Wright. Including a complete List of Words that are spelt in two or more ways.
- VOCABULARY OF NOTED NAMES OF FICTION. By W. A. Wheeler, M.A. This work includes Mythical Names; including also Pseudonyms, Nick-names of eminent persons and parties, &c. &c.
This work may also be had separately, post 8vo. price 5s.
- A PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY OF SCRIPTURE PROPER NAMES. By W. A. Wheeler. M.A.
- A PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY OF GREEK AND LATIN PROPER NAMES. By Prof. Thacher.
- AN ETYMOLOGICAL VOCABULARY OF MODERN GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES. By the Rev. C. H. Wheeler.
- PRONOUNCING VOCABULARIES OF MODERN GEOGRAPHICAL AND BIOGRAPHICAL NAMES. By J. Thomas, M.D.
- A PRONOUNCING VOCABULARY OF COMMON ENGLISH CHRISTIAN NAMES, with their derivations, signification, &c.
- A DICTIONARY OF QUOTATIONS. Containing all Words, Phrases, Proverbs, and Colloquial Expressions from the Greek, Latin, and Modern Languages met with in literature.
- A NEW BIOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY OF UPWARDS OF 9700 NAMES OF NOTED PERSONS, ANCIENT AND MODERN.
- A LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS, CONTRACTIONS, AND ARBITRARY SIGNS USED IN WRITING AND PRINTING.
- A CLASSIFIED SELECTION OF PICTORIAL ILLUSTRATIONS (70 pages). With references to the text.

'The cheapest Dictionary ever published, as it is confessedly one of the best. The introduction of small woodcut illustrations of technical and scientific terms adds greatly to the utility of the Dictionary.'—*Churchman*.

1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* ; half-calf, 2*l.* ; calf or half-russia, 2*l.* 2*s.* ; russia, 2*l.* 10*s.*

LONDON :

Printed by STRANGEWAYS AND SONS, Tower Street, Upper St. Martin's Lane.

